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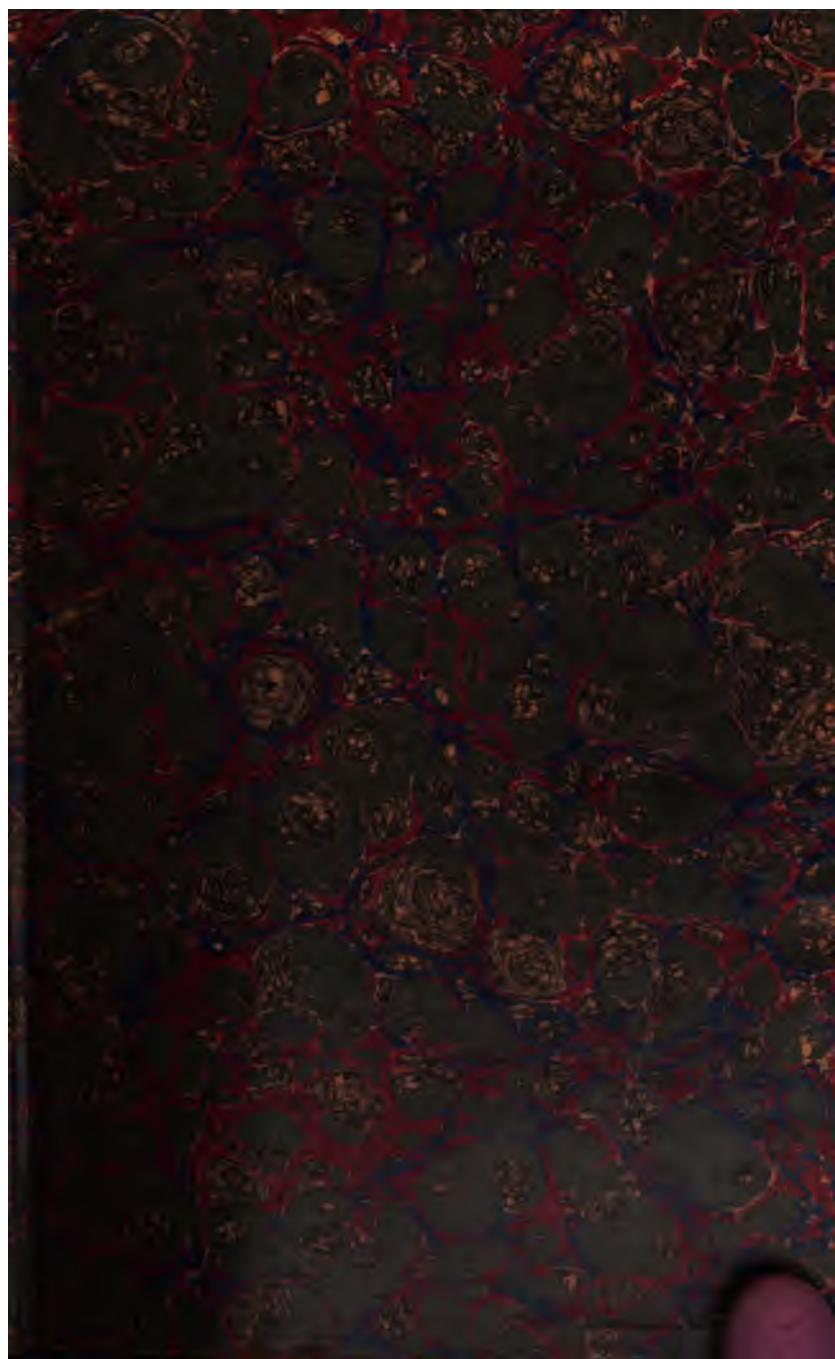
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A
SKETCH
OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY,
FOR
THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY SAMUEL BUTLER, D.D.

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AND FORMERLY HEAD MASTER OF SHREWSBURY SCHOOL.

A NEW EDITION,
REVISED BY THE REV. THOMAS BUTLER.

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PREFACE

TO

THE MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

THIS work was written by Dr. Butler when Headmaster of Shrewsbury School, to supply a want which he felt among his own pupils, and thought might probably be experienced by others. It was composed in the spare half-hours which he could snatch by early rising, before the labours of the day commenced, and was originally a mere hasty sketch. Much was from time to time interpolated by himself, and a good deal has been added subsequently to his death by his son, as the advancement of geographical information seemed to require.

One obvious inconvenience arising from these circumstances has been a deficiency of orderly and methodical arrangement. Something has been already done in previous editions toward a better classification of the facts, and now the difficulty has been dealt with at large. The physical features of each country have been mentioned first, and brought more prominently forward. The political

divisions, towns, and other objects of interest, have been made to follow in order.

To effect this, the Editor found it necessary to re-write the portion of the work which relates to modern geography, preserving, however, the original matter in its proper place. He has omitted the constant reference to latitude and longitude, as unnecessary where the maps have a good index. He has appended also a slight notice of some of the leading historical incidents that have befallen the several countries of the globe, though necessarily this is scanty and imperfect. The latest attainable census has been substituted for earlier ones; and the Editor willingly expresses his obligations to the valuable works of Mr. M'Culloch and Mr. Keith Johnston, for important information upon this and other points. Recent travels have been constantly consulted where any doubt or difficulty seemed to require it. A chapter on physical geography had been already added in previous editions.

One other point requires notice. The price at which the work has hitherto been published has been felt to be an obstacle in some cases to its free use. The present edition is not only printed in a cheaper form, so that notwithstanding its increased bulk its price is somewhat diminished, but the antient and modern parts have been published separately, so that either may be obtained as required, without the purchaser being encumbered with the whole work.

It is hoped, with some confidence, that these im-

provements will be acceptable to the public; and the Editor can truly say that he has spared neither time, trouble, nor expense to render them as complete as possible.

Langar, Aug. 22nd, 1854.

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PART I.

**A SKETCH
OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY.**

MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

The Maps of Butler's Atlas referred to in this Chapter are, Modern Geography (M. G.), Plates I. III. IV. XXVI.

GEOGRAPHY implies a description of the earth, being derived from the Greek words *γῆ*, the earth, and *γράφειν*, to describe.

The form of the earth is nearly spherical; the polar axis being only about 38 miles shorter than the equatorial, which, in a diameter of nearly 8000 miles, can make no sensible difference.*

The principal circles on the globe (Pl. I.) are, the Equator, the Ecliptic, the Tropic of Cancer, the Tropic of Capricorn, the Arctic and Antarctic circles.

Every circle, whether greater or less, is divided into 360 degrees. For the ancients supposed that the Ecliptic,

* A straight line passing through the centre of any circle, and terminated both ways by the circumference, is called the diameter, because it *διαμετρεῖ*—measures through it. If a circle be supposed to turn round on its diameter, it will generate a solid figure called a sphere. Such is the figure of the earth very nearly. The diameter on which the circle revolves is called its axis. The extreme points of this diameter are called poles, from *πολεῖν*—to turn round.

or the circle which the sun appears to describe in the heavens, was completed in 360 days. Each day's advance in the circle they called a *gradus*, or step, or degree, and applied the same mode of division to circles in general. Each degree is divided into 60 minutes, and each minute into 60 seconds. Degrees, minutes, and seconds are marked thus, °, ', " ; thus 23° 40' 52" means 23 degrees, 40 minutes, and 52 seconds.

The Equator is a great circle*, to whose plane the axis of the sphere is perpendicular. It is called the Equator, or Equinoctial, because, on the two days on which the sun is vertical at the Equator, *noctes æquantur*, or the length of the day is exactly equal to that of the night, all over the world. This happens in March and September, or when the sun is in the constellations of Aries and Libra.

The Ecliptic is so called, because all *ἐκλείψεις*, or eclipses of the sun and moon, can only take place when the moon is in or near that circle.†

The plane of the Ecliptic is inclined to the plane of the Equator at an angle of about 23° 30'. Hence when the sun has reached its northernmost point, it is vertical 23° 30' North of the Equator, or is 23° 30' higher in the heavens of the Northern Hemisphere than it was at the Equinox, and 47° higher than it was at mid-winter: and

* Every plane section of a sphere is a circle. When the plane passes through the centre of the sphere the circle is called a *great* circle; all great circles in the same sphere are equal.

When two *great* circles have their axes at right angles, they are called, with relation to each other, *primary* and *secondary* circles. Thus, circles passing through the poles are secondaries to the Equator.

† An eclipse of the sun is caused by the moon intervening between the sun and the earth, so that the moon's shadow falls upon the earth. An eclipse of the moon is caused by the earth passing between the sun and the moon, so that the earth's shadow falls upon the moon.

the arc which it describes in the heavens is proportionably greater, or, in other words, the days become hotter and longer; and the same is true of the Southern Hemisphere when the sun is in the Tropic of Capricorn.

The Ecliptic is usually drawn above the Equator in the Eastern Hemisphere, and below it in the Western. But as each point in the earth's circumference falls under the sun in the course of 24 hours, it might with equal propriety be drawn in any other manner, provided the same inclination be retained; or the purpose of the Ecliptic might be answered by graduating any meridian from one Tropic to the other, so as to mark the daily progress of the sun northward or southward.

The Tropics* are two parallels† to the Equator, drawn through the Ecliptic, at those points where the Ecliptic is at the greatest distance from the Equator. The northern Tropic is called that of Cancer, the southern that of Capricorn, because the sun is in those constellations respectively at the summer and winter solstice. Every point between the Tropics must have the sun vertical twice every year: once in its progress northward, and once in its return.

The Polar circles are those which are described by the Poles of the Ecliptic revolving round the Poles of the Equator. Hence they must be the same distance from the poles of the Equator as the plane of the Ecliptic is from the plane of the Equator, or $23^{\circ} 30'$.

The Zones‡ are the spaces contained between the several circles we have already described. Thus, between the Poles and Polar Circles are the two Frigid Zones, between

* So called from *τρίπνεν*—to turn; because the sun travels thus far North and South of the Equator, and then appears to turn back again.

† *Parallels* are sections of a sphere made by planes parallel to a great circle, as it were—*παρ' ἀλλήλους*—by the side of each other.

‡ From *ζωναι*, belts or girdles.

the Frigid Zones and the Tropics the two Temperate Zones, and between the Tropics the Torrid Zone, these appellations being derived from the temperature of their atmosphere.

Meridians*, or circles of Longitude†, are so called from *meridies*, or mid-day; because, when the secondary circle passing through any place becomes opposite the sun, the sun will appear to the inhabitants of that place at its greatest altitude, and afterwards descends for as long a time as he appeared ascending previously. In other words, it will be mid-day or noon. It is, therefore, evident there may be as many meridians drawn as there are points on the earth's Equator: for the sake of convenience, they are generally drawn at 10° distance from each other in maps of the world, and at 5° or less in maps containing only a portion of the earth's surface.

The Longitude of any place is its distance from a given spot, generally the capital of some country, measured in a direction East or West, either along the Equator or any circle parallel to it. The English measure their Longitude East or West of Greenwich, the French East or West of Paris. The antients measured their Longitude from a fixed meridian which passed through the Fortunatæ Insulæ, or Canary Islands.

The Latitude of any place is its distance from the Equator North or South, and is measured along a secondary to the Equator, supposed to be drawn through the place.‡

* A great circle passing through the poles and through any place on the earth's surface is called the *meridian* of that place.

† All places on the same meridian have the same Longitude; and therefore meridians are called Circles of Longitude.

‡ The antients, who knew little more of the earth than from the Canary Islands to the Euphrates, from West to East; and from the Barbary Coast to the Baltic, from South to North; called the greater dimensions the Longitude, or length; and the smaller the Latitude, or breadth. Hence the terms Longitude and Latitude, as applied to distances on the earth's surface; the former being measured in a direction East or West, and the latter in a direction North or South from the Equator.

Parallels of Latitude are smaller circles drawn parallel to the Equator. As the circumference of the earth is greatest at the Equator, and gradually decreases towards the Poles, it is evident that as we advance northward or southward from the Equator the number of miles in each parallel of latitude must continually decrease. But the number of *degrees* in every circle, whether greater or less, is always 360. Therefore the number of miles in each of these 360°, or in every degree of longitude, must decrease as we proceed from the Equator to the Poles. We may, therefore, consider the Equator as the greatest of all circles of latitude. Taking 60 miles to the degree at the Equator, the degree in latitude 51°, or the South of England, is less than 38 miles, and in the North of Scotland not much more than 31 miles.*

The longitude of any place being its distance from a given point measured along the Equator in a direction East or West, and the latitude of the same place being its distance from the Equator North or South, if we know both the latitude and longitude of a place, we know its exact situation on the globe.—To exemplify this in the Map of the World (see also Map of Europe, Pl. III.). Every place lying under the meridian marked 30° on the Equator is in the 30th degree of longitude East of London. I should find Alexandria in Egypt, and St. Petersburg in Russia, both in this degree of longitude, but I do not know their relative position; but when I find that the 60th degree of North latitude passes through St. Petersburg, and the 31st through Alexandria, or that St. Petersburg is 60°, and Alexandria 31°, North of the Equator, I know their exact situation with regard to each other, to London, and to every known place.

* It is evident that the number of miles in all meridians or circles of longitude, which are all great circles, must be the same: therefore the number of miles in a degree of latitude is everywhere very nearly the same, and would be quite so were the earth a perfect sphere.

We say, therefore, that St. Petersburg is in 60° North latitude, and 30° East longitude; and that Alexandria is in 31° North latitude, and 30° East longitude. A degree is 60 geographical or $69\frac{1}{2}$ English miles. The latter measure is used throughout this work, unless the contrary is expressed.

It has been already stated that in Maps of the World the meridians are generally drawn at 10° distance; but it is evident, that the more minute the divisions can be made, the more accurately may the situation of any place be ascertained. In the Map of Europe the divisions are drawn at every 5° distance; in the Map of England (Pl. IV.) at every degree. Hence, though it is not, perhaps, easy in the Map of the World to ascertain the position of a place to a single degree, in the Map of Europe we may do this with tolerable accuracy to half a degree, and in the Map of England almost to the precision of a single mile.

Of computing Degrees of Longitude by Time.

As the earth makes one complete revolution on its axis in 24 hours, any one point of the earth's surface must have been carried through 360° of longitude in that time; or, if we suppose a fixed meridian above the earth, like the brazen meridian of a globe, every part of the Equator (containing 360°) must have passed under that meridian in 24 hours. Hence, if we divide 360 by 24, we shall find how many degrees pass under the meridian in one hour. This is found to be 15. Now, as the earth revolves from West to East, it is continually falling, as it were, below the heavenly bodies on the Eastern, and rising above them on the Western horizon. Hence, these bodies appear to rise in the East, and set in the West; i. e. they come within our view as the Eastern edge of our horizon falls below them, and are hidden as the Western rises above them. If the sun, therefore, appear to rise at 6 o'clock

at London, it will be yet an hour before it rises at any place 15° West of London, two hours before it rises at a place 30° West of London, and so on. In like manner it will appear to have already risen an hour at any place 15° East of London, two hours 30° East, and so on. Therefore, when it is 12 o'clock, or noon, at London, it will be 1 o'clock in the afternoon at all places 15° East of London, and only 11 in the forenoon at all places 15° West of London.

The following questions may serve to exercise the young student:—

It is 11 o'clock in the morning at Vienna (PL. III.): where is it noon? where is it 1 in the afternoon? and where is it 10 in the morning?

When it is mid-day at London, where is it midnight? When it is 2 o'clock at Kingston, Jamaica (PL. XXVI.), what o'clock is it at Shrewsbury (PL. IV.)?

Suppose an eclipse of the sun takes place at 3 in the afternoon where I am, and I see by the almanack that it took place at half-past 12 at London, in what longitude am I?

CHAP. II.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

M. G. Plate II.

PHYSICAL geography is that science which treats of the nature and causes of the phenomena attendant upon our globe, and in its largest sense would include a far wider range than can be embraced in a work like the present. A slight sketch is, however, subjoined of such of these phenomena as relate to the distribution of heat, the prevailing winds and ocean currents, the amount of rain, the influence of climate upon vegetation, and the distribution of the various races of mankind. The most important of these subjects, and that which exerts the greatest influence on all the rest, is that relating to the distribution of heat.

If a flat surface be exposed perpendicularly to the fire, it will rapidly become heated; but if it be held in an oblique position, a great portion of the heat will be reflected, which would otherwise be absorbed. In like manner, if the rays of the sun fall perpendicularly on our atmosphere, and, through it, upon the earth, both the atmosphere and the earth will become much more heated than if the rays fall in an oblique direction. Those parts, therefore, of the earth which lie near the equator, and over which the sun is perpendicular, will be much hotter than those which are more remote, and upon which, owing to the earth's form, its rays fall obliquely; and towards the poles, where the obliquity is very great, the greater part of the heat will be reflected, and only a small portion of it absorbed. We

find, therefore, that the climate toward the equator is hot, and that toward the poles it is very cold.

If this was the only cause which influenced the temperature, the *Isothermal* lines, or lines of equal temperature (Pl. II.), would exactly coincide with the parallels of latitude, and decrease in uniform succession from the equator to the poles. This, however, is found not to be the case. The equator of heat, or the line passing through those places which are hottest, is found as far as 10° N. of the equator in South America, and even 14° N. in Abyssinia and Hindostan; and the point at which the soil is permanently frozen at a small depth below the surface, is not more than 51° N. in Labrador; whereas London, which is in about the same latitude, enjoys a genial climate, and the point of perpetually frozen subsoil is not found much below latitude 68° in Finland: we must look, therefore, to some modifying causes.

The distribution of land and water has a considerable influence on climate: great masses of water are much less susceptible of a change of temperature than the land. The sea is therefore commonly warmer than the air in winter, and colder in summer. Insular positions, and those exposed to prevalent sea breezes, have thus a more equable temperature than those far inland, the warmth of the atmosphere being modified by that of the water, over which it passes before it reaches the shore.

Much effect is due to the elevation of particular localities above the sea level. The atmosphere, which is supposed to extend in a very attenuated form to about the altitude of forty-five miles, is capable of retaining much more heat when compressed by the weight of the superincumbent column, than when less compressed. The higher, therefore, we ascend, the less the height and weight of air above us, and the rarer the atmosphere, which is therefore able to retain less heat. The radiation, also, from

the surrounding portions of the earth is less felt as we rise above the plains toward a mountain ridge.

This decrease of temperature is very rapid, insomuch that perpetual snow is found at the altitude of about 15,000 feet at the equator, and at lower elevations as we proceed north or south. The hottest mean annual temperature is about 81° of Fahr.; and as perpetual snow implies a mean temperature not above 32° , 15,000 feet of altitude are found to be sufficient to reduce the temperature 50° , or at the rate of 300 feet a degree. This will explain how the plain of Quito, which is more than 9000 feet above the sea, and some other points near the equator, have a less temperature than others further north or south which have a lower elevation.

Another point of some influence is the vicinity or absence of any large extent of snowy mountains. Ranges like the Andes, Himalaya Mountains, or even the Alps, cool the air in their vicinity, and send down refreshing breezes and cooling streams to the hotter countries at their bases. Other modifying causes are the prevalence of certain winds, and of certain currents in the ocean.

Air (see Map of Winds, Pl. II.), like other bodies, expands by heat, and thus becomes of less specific gravity; it will therefore, when heated, ascend, and the cooler air will rush in to supply the vacant space. We might expect, therefore, that there should be a continually ascending current of air from the hottest part of the globe, and that the cold air from the poles would rush in, forming a north wind in the northern, and a south wind in the southern hemisphere. While, however, the cold air is rushing from north and south, the earth is revolving on its axis from west to east; and though it is true that the atmosphere revolves with the earth, and therefore the direction of the current might be thought to be uninfluenced by the earth's revolution, yet it is to be remem-

bered that the atmosphere near the poles, say at lat. 80° for instance, revolves only through a circumference of about 2000 miles in 24 hours; while at the equator, which is so much further removed from the axis, it revolves through a space not less than 25,000 miles in the same period. In passing, therefore, from the poles to the equator, the air has not acquired the velocity of the earth's surface, and is continually left behind. That is, toward the equator, the earth revolves faster than the currents from the north and south, which, therefore, appear to meet it, to come from the north-east and south-east, or to be north-east and south-east winds. These are the trade winds.

The ascending current from the equator becomes rapidly cooled in the higher regions of the air, and gradually descends as it passes northward and southward, to supply the place of the air subtracted from the poles. But having acquired the velocity of the earth at the equator, its rotation is more rapid than that of the earth in the temperate and cold regions. The upper current, therefore, in the northern hemisphere, is not a south, but a south-west wind, and in the southern hemisphere, north-west. This current commonly descends to the earth between lat. 23° and 28° , from whence south-west winds begin to prevail in the northern, and north-west winds in the southern, temperate zone. The winds, however, in these portions of the globe, are very variable, not only from the alternate prevalence of the upper or lower current, but also from local causes.

The trade winds, from this view of the case, ought to blow most strongly and most duly from the east at the point of highest temperature. It is found, however, that between the north-easterly and south-easterly currents there is an interval of about 5° or 6° of almost perfect calm, interrupted by sudden squalls of variable winds, accompanied by floods of rain. The cause of this does not seem very

clearly ascertained, but it may perhaps be due to the ascending current diverting the course of the streams of air from either side, and carrying them upward with it. Lesser variations in the force and direction of the trade winds are attributable to the distribution of land and water. Thus between the Canary and Cape Verde Islands, for about fifty miles off land, the wind blows almost constantly in shore, or in a direction exactly contrary to the trade wind: this is due to the intense heat of the Sahara, which causes an ascending current strong enough to draw in the air from the cooler Atlantic to supply its place.

A similar interruption occurs, with uncertain winds, on the west coast of America, which may be attributed to the vast chain of the Andes sheltering the coast beneath them like a wall. Other variations occur which cannot be enumerated in a sketch like the present. It may, however, be observed, that the central region of calms, and that of the trade winds on either side of it, move northwards or southwards, according as the sun is north or south of the equator. The variation is, however, comparatively small; for, while the sun travels as much as $23^{\circ} 30'$ north and an equal distance southward, the limits of the above-mentioned winds travel only through 5° or 6° , and of the central calm only through 2° or 3° . The southern limit of the calms, however, is always 1° or 2° north of the equator.

There are certain parts of the globe where this course of nature is interrupted. A large area from the east coast of Africa, north of Mozambique, extending to the Chinese Seas, and some parts also of the Pacific, are subject to the Monsoons. These are alternate winds, blowing during part of the year, constantly in a direction uniform with that of the trade winds, and, during another part, as constantly in a direction exactly the reverse.

The change is accompanied by violent storms, and the interval between the Monsoons lasts about a month. The reverse Monsoons, or those which blow from the south-west in the Indian Ocean and from the north-west on the coasts of Australia, have been attributed to the rarefaction of the air over Hindostan and the Birman Empire in the one case, and over the great plains of Australia in the other, and occur severally at the periods when those portions of the globe are most heated; namely, the south-west Monsoon from April to September in the Indian Ocean, or when the sun is in the northern hemisphere; and the north-west Monsoon, from October to April on the coasts of Australia, when the sun has passed to the southward of the equator.

A similar cause may serve to explain other instances of periodical winds, as those on the east coast of South America, the north winds of the Mediterranean, the Khamsin of Egypt. It is probable that other causes combine with those above enumerated, as the daily and monthly fluctuations caused by the attraction of the sun and moon upon the great ocean of our atmosphere, the currents of heated water in the sea, &c. Some portions of the globe are peculiarly exposed to violent gales of wind called Typhoons or Hurricanes: these are of the nature of vast whirlwinds, and are found uniformly to revolve in the northern hemisphere the reverse way to that of the hands of a clock, i. e. from north to west, then south, then east. In the southern hemisphere, their revolution is from north to east, then south and west. While they have a rotatory motion of terrific violence, they have also a progressive movement from the region of calms northward, to the north of that neutral ground, and southward, to the south of it. The West Indian hurricanes, of which we know most, have a progressive track, first north-west, then north-eastward, perhaps deflected by the warm strata

accompanying the gulf stream, and losing their fury off the coasts of the United States, or in the Atlantic. They are accompanied by violent electric phenomena, and we have but recently ascertained their laws and nature. Their causes still remain obscure.

We proceed to mention some of the more remarkable ocean currents. First: near the equator, throughout the ocean, there is found a current flowing from east to west, which is supposed to be owing to the trade winds, in conjunction with the revolution of the earth in a contrary direction. The centre of this current strikes the north-east angle of South America, which divides it, sending part of the water southward and part north-westward along its shores. The southern current forms a counter stream to the equatorial current, and returns eastward, a little south of the Cape of Good Hope, and towards Australia. The northern branch flows into the Gulf of Mexico, where it is forced up against the shores of Central America, so as to raise the surface of the ocean in those parts, and the accumulated waters escape northward into the Atlantic round the coast of Florida, and flow north-eastward to the coasts of Norway and Spitzbergen. The waters are greatly heated before they leave the Mexican Gulf, even to a temperature of 85° — 88° , and carry no small portion of their warmth far northward, thus rendering the climate of the shores they wash much milder than the latitude would lead us to expect. This is the reason of the great upward bend of the isothermal lines about North Cape, and to this cause also we must attribute the circumstance of the maximum of temperature lying so far north of the equator in South America, just as the plains of Hindostan, Arabia, and the Sahara, cause it to rise northward in Asia and Africa. A cold current, on the other hand, from Baffin's Bay, sets southward by the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland, causing a colder

temperature than might have been expected, in the former, and continual fogs arising from the meeting of the warm air of the gulf stream with the cold air of the Arctic current, about the latter. An eastern current of considerable importance flows from the Antarctic regions to the coasts of South America about Chiloe, where it divides, part rushing northward to supply the equatorial current, and part southward, escaping round Cape Horn. In like manner it will be seen, by inspection of the map, how the general western stream, when checked by Borneo and the Philippines, partly escapes through the Straits of Sunda, and partly is deflected from the Chinese coasts, forming a strong current north-eastward along the coasts of the Japanese Islands : while on striking the east coast of Africa, above Madagascar, the whole body of water is turned southward, by meeting with the current from the Indian Ocean which has that direction, and flowing round the Cape of Good Hope, between it and the counter stream mentioned above as proceeding from the coasts of South America, no doubt contributes to the dangerous sea that is frequently met with in those parts.

We must not omit to mention the influence upon our globe of the amount of rain. In some districts, as in the Sahara, parts of Arabia and Persia, and the desert of Gobi, the interior of Mexico, and the coast of Peru, rain is almost unknown. Vegetation is either wanting, or of the most scanty character, and men and other animals can only live in the portions watered by feeble streams or wells, whose supply is very precarious. Under the equator, or a little north of it, the continual precipitation generates an excess of moisture, which renders the climate unhealthy, and produces fevers and agues : hence the unhealthiness of Sierra Leone, the West Indies, and the coasts of Brazil. Other parts of the world enjoy a more moderate climate. In the Arctic and Antarctic regions,

rain seldom or never falls, but its place is supplied by snow : this also occurs on high mountains, upon which it is supposed that no rain ever falls above a certain altitude, varying with the latitude of the place. The abundant daily rains of the equatorial district, which is, however, as before observed, wholly north of the equator, probably arise from the upward current loaded with vapour from the heated ocean becoming rapidly cooled as it ascends, and being then unable to retain its moisture, which is precipitated in deluges of rain. The upward current, on the other hand, from the heated and dry Sahara, even when cooled, is able to retain the little moisture it possessed. The same is true, to a greater or less degree, of all extensive plains ; and the rainless district would extend unbroken from the edge of the Sahara to China, were it not that the Red Sea and Persian Gulf afford sources for evaporation in two instances, and the Himalaya Mountains, with their perpetual snow, in a third. It may be asked, why then is not the great plain of Brazil a rainless district ? But this arises from the perpetual east winds, which come loaded with moisture from the sea, and blow across the continent to the Andes. The cold of those elevated summits precipitates the whole remaining moisture which may have travelled so far inland ; and the Pacific coasts are nearly without rain. The rainless district of Mexico is, probably, owing to its being without the influence of the trade winds, which are interrupted in the northern part of the Mexican Gulf. Countries between the tropics have generally a dry and a wet season, the rain usually accompanying the sun, and being most abundant at that period of the year when the sun is vertical. But at some distance further north or south, the reverse is the case, and the moist season is the winter. It may be added, that the eastern part of a tropical country will receive most rain, for the trade winds carry the vapours of the

ocean thither ; but the western coast of a temperate region has the most rain, from the prevalence of west winds, which blow from the sea, and bring its vapours. Thus, Ireland and Devonshire have more rain than Norfolk and Kent ; but the Brazilian shores and Mozambique more than the coasts of Congo and Chili. Snow is only frozen vesicles of vapour, and will always fall instead of rain, where the temperature does not rise above 32° in the regions of the sky from whence the vapour is precipitated.

Vegetation is greatly affected by the amount of warmth and moisture. Their joint operation produces the luxuriant forests of Brazil. The absence of moisture renders the Sahara a desert ; the absence of heat renders Iceland and Labrador almost equally barren. Some soils, doubtless, are more fertile than others, but the finest soil, without these requisites, is fruitless, and the poorest soil, with them, will throw up a more or less luxuriant vegetation. It is impossible, in a sketch like this, to indicate even a general outline of the botanical features to which these considerations point, but the reader is referred to the map (M. G. Pl. II.) for the limits of the principal plants most important to mankind. The occasional variations in the degree north or south to which they may extend, are to be attributed, not always to the precise mean temperature of the place, but frequently to the equable temperature throughout the year. Some plants, as the vine and the wheat, will bear considerable degrees of cold, if the summers be hot enough to ripen them. Others, as the palms and tree ferns, are permanently cut off by a single night of severe weather. Thus, owing to the small variation of its temperature throughout the year, the extreme south point of Patagonia possesses plants, congeners of which belong to a latitude much nearer the equator. Some plants will not bear long drought, others are destroyed by too much moisture. But it is to be observed, that, by a beautiful

provision, the most succulent plants generally grow in the driest situations, thus affording to the creatures that feed on them the moisture which they would be otherwise unable to obtain.

It remains only to mention briefly the distribution of the various races of mankind. Though sprung from a common origin, long residence in particular climates, under particular circumstances, has given distinctive characters to our race. In colour, they vary from the fair complexion and light eyes of Northern Europeans, to the yellow-coloured tribes of China, the Red American Indian, the olive Malay, and the black African. The hair also differs remarkably, being in some races soft and flowing, in others crisp, resembling wool, in others scanty and wiry. The form of the skull and of the limbs is also liable to considerable variation; the head of some races being oval, of others pyramidal, and of others flat, with a receding forehead. The best ethnologists reckon five principal varieties.

1. The Caucasian race comprises nearly all Europe and the north of Africa, together with all Asia from the Ganges to the Mediterranean, as far north as a line drawn from the Himalaya Mountains to the Oxus and the Ural. They have also displaced the original races in Canada and the United States, and on the coasts of Australia and South Africa, and have become largely intermixed with them throughout Mexico and the greater part of South America. They have always comprised the nations most advanced in civilisation, and have included Jews, Assyrians, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and the nations of Modern Europe. The characteristics of the Caucasian race are an oval head, high forehead, small mouth, and generally flowing hair. In colour they differ very widely, from the fairest complexion to swarthy, and even quite black. And it is observable that amongst the

Jews, a single tribe of this great family, and *that* the one least altered by intermarriages with other people, and the one whose history can be best traced, the varieties of colour are of every shade, from the lightest to the darkest. So that the colour of the skin may be entirely rejected from the consideration of race, and may be attributed wholly to climate and external circumstances.

2. The Mongolian or Chinese race occupies the remainder of Asia, with the exception of the Malay peninsula and the adjacent districts. The Finns and Lapps of the extreme north of Europe, and probably the Basques of Spain, and the Esquimaux of North America and Greenland, belong also to this family. The characteristics of the Mongolian are eyes obliquely set and small, head pyramidal above the cheek bones, which are wide, and render the face larger in proportion to the head than it is in Europeans. The colour is commonly a yellow olive, more or less dark, and the hair scanty but wiry, though in some Mongolian tribes it is abundant.

3. The American race, or Red Indians, are not at all uniformly of that dull red colour which is peculiar to many of their tribes. Some are dark nearly to blackness, and some so fair as to vie with Europeans. The eyes are deeply set, and the beard commonly nearly wanting. They are found throughout the whole continent of America with the exception of the extreme north, but a mixed race has arisen in Peru, Brazil, and Mexico, from the infusion of Spanish and Portuguese settlers; and British colonisation has nearly effaced the last traces of aboriginal American blood in the United States and Canada.

4. The whole of Africa below the Sahara and Abyssinia is occupied by the negro race, unless we except the European settlements about the Cape of Good Hope, which are gradually driving the Hottentot and Bushman

tribes northward. The latter vary in some respects from the negro races, but have been included under the same family. The aborigines of Australia have been considered also to belong to the negro race rather than to the Malays. The distinctive characteristics are, a low forehead, protruding lips, and crisp hair; but these features are by no means constant, and vary greatly in different tribes.

5. The Malay race extends over the Malay peninsula and the adjacent islands, Madagascar, and a great part of the Pacific. Their characteristics are, the head narrow, but less so than in the negro, the hair black, flowing, and abundant.

In mentioning these varieties of the human family, it is not to be understood that the type is so strongly defined as to admit of no gradations, much less that there is any distinction so permanent as not to admit of modification, by differing circumstances. Indeed, the varieties are considerably less than those between domesticated animals which are known to have been derived from a common stock. The contrast presented by the small, black Welsh cattle and the oxen of Hereford, or of the Roman states,—or by the Shetland pony and the London dray-horse, or Arabian courser, — is far greater than that between the most distinct families of mankind. Indeed, the deepest researches of science have gone here, as in other instances, not to disparage, but to support the authority of the sacred record, and tend to show that God hath made “of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth.”

CHAP. III.

M. G. Plates I. to XVIII.

THE Map of the World (Pl. I.) is divided into two Hemispheres. The right, or Eastern Hemisphere, contains the three continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, commonly called the Old World, as having been known to the antients. The left, or Western Hemisphere, contains the two continents of North and South America, called the New World, as having been only discovered by Columbus in the year 1492.

We still speak in common language of the four quarters of the world,—viz. Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; but geographers divide it into six, or rather seven, portions,—Europe, Asia, Africa, the two Americas, Australasia, containing Australia and the adjacent islands, and Polynesia (from *πολὺς* and *νῆσος*), comprising the numerous islands in the Pacific Ocean.

EUROPE.

The smallest, and at the same time the most highly civilised division of the globe, is Europe (Pl. III.). It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by the Atlantic, on the south by the Mediterranean, which separates it from Africa, and on the east it is divided from Asia by a line drawn through the Archipelago, the Black Sea, and the ridge of Caucasus, to the Caspian, and thence along the river Ural and the Ural Mountains to the North Sea under Nova Zembla.

The coast outline is very irregular. In the north, the White Sea forms a large gulf, opening into the Arctic Ocean. In the west, the North Sea or German Ocean is nearly enclosed by the British Islands, Belgium, Holland, and Denmark. A very extensive inland sea branches off round Denmark into the heart of Northern Europe, under the name of the Baltic. Its extremity is divided into two great arms, the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. Further south, the Bay of Biscay bites deeply into France. On entering the Mediterranean, the peninsula of Italy, the Gulf of Venice, the peninsula of Greece, and the Archipelago, form a most irregular outline. Beyond this, the Sea of Marmora, the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azov, constitute a series of inland seas, connected by narrow straits.

The various countries of Europe are as follows : —

In the west, are the islands of Great Britain and Ireland. Below Great Britain is France, to which the island of Corsica, in the Mediterranean, appertains. South-west of France is Spain ; and west of Spain, Portugal.

South-east of France is Switzerland, reaching to the Alps. North-east of France is Belgium ; and above Belgium, Holland. East of these is Prussia, lying in part along the Baltic ; and intersecting Prussia is Germany. Above Germany is Denmark, to which belong several islands in the Baltic ; and the great island of Iceland, lying far to the north-west of Scotland.

South-east of Germany is Austria, reaching to the Gulf of Venice ; and west of the Gulf of Venice is Italy, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia still further west.

Returning to the north, above Denmark is Norway ; and to the east of Norway, Sweden. The whole of Europe east of the Baltic and north of the Black Sea, is Russia. Below Russia, bordering on the Black Sea, is Turkey ; and below Turkey, Greece.

The chief mountain ranges are the Norwegian Alps and the Ural Mountains, in the north, which form as it were great walls, inclosing an extensive plain, which occupies the whole centre and east of Europe. The Pyrenees, the Alps, the Carpathian Mountains, the Balkhan range, and the Caucasus, form systems more or less connected in the South of Europe.

The principal Rivers flowing into the Northern Ocean are the Petschora and Northern Dwina.

Into the Baltic Sea, the Neva, Southern Dwina, Vistula, and Oder.

Into the German Ocean, the Elbe and Rhine.

Into the English Channel, the Seine.

Into the Bay of Biscay, the Loire and Garonne.

Into the Atlantic, the Douro, Tagus, Guadiana and Guadalquivir.

Into the Mediterranean, the Ebro and Rhone.

Into the Black Sea, the Danube, Dnieper, and Don.

Into the Caspian, the Volga and Ural.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Sect. 1. ENGLAND AND WALES.

Area*, 58,320 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1851, 17,927,609.

The islands of Great Britain (Pl. IV.) and Ireland lie to the west of the European continent.

Great Britain is divided into England, Wales, and Scotland. Of these divisions, England is the greatest. The western portion of the island is Wales; the northern, Scotland.

	<i>E. sq. M.</i>
* England	50,922
Wales	7,398
	58,320

An English square mile contains 640 acres, and is to a geographical square mile as 300 is to 398·6, or as 3 is to 4 very nearly.

England and Wales will form the subject of the present section.

England is bounded on the east by the German Ocean, on the south by the English Channel, on the west by the Bristol Channel, Wales, and the Irish Sea. On the north the Solway Firth, the Cheviot Hills, and the river Tweed, separate it from Scotland.

The chief capes on the east coast are Flamboro' Head, Spurn Head, and North and South Foreland. On the south coast are Beachy Head, Selsey Bill, St. Alban's Head, Portland Island, Start Point, Lizard Point, and Land's End. On the western coast is Hartland Point, together with the following in Wales: St. David's Head, Braich y Pwll, and Holyhead. Further north is St. Bees Head.

The chief bays and estuaries are the Humber, the Wash, the Thames Mouth, the Bristol Channel, Cardigan Bay, and Morecambe Bay.

The chief mountains of England and Wales are traced in connection with the Cheviot Hills, which form the Scottish border, and are continued southward under the name of the Fells, forming the watershed between the east and west coast, nearly to the middle of England. After an interval of undulating plain, the Cotswold Hills divide the waters of the Bristol Channel from those of the Thames.

Returning to the north, the Cumbrian Mountains, the highest in England, form a radiating knot, and reach an altitude of 3000 feet. In Wales, the mountains of Snowdonia run through Carnarvonshire, and form the culminating point of South Britain. The greatest elevation is 3571 feet. Parallel to this, the Berwyn range traverses North Wales, and other ranges of less importance intersect South Wales, generally in a direction N. E. and S. W. A detached granite group, of no great height, rises at Mount Sorrel (in Leicestershire), nearly in the centre of

England; the granite again appears at Dartmoor, in Devonshire, and runs south-westward to the Land's End.*

The principal rivers in England flow into the German Ocean, and will be mentioned beginning from the north.

The Tyne rises in the Cheviots, and, flowing by Newcastle, falls into the German Ocean at North and South Shields.

The Wear flows by Durham into the sea at Bishopwearmouth or Sunderland.

The Tees divides Durham from Yorkshire, and forms an estuary near Redcar.

The Humber is rather an estuary than a river, and receives the waters of several considerable rivers, the chief of which are the Yorkshire Derwent, the Yorkshire Ouse, the Aire, Don, and Trent. All these, except the Trent, rise in the Yorkshire Hills. The Trent rises in Staffordshire, and, receiving the Dove and the Derbyshire Derwent below Burton, flows by Nottingham, Newark, and Gainsborough. Its course is about 200 miles.

The Bedford Ouse rises in Northamptonshire, receives the Cam a little above Ely, and flows into the Wash below Lynn.

The Thames is the greatest of the English rivers. It rises near Cirencester in Gloucestershire, and flows by

* The heights of the principal Mountains are subjoined.

	<i>Feet.</i>		<i>Feet.</i>
The Cheviots	2658	In North Wales—	
Whernside	2384	Snowdon	3571
Ingleborough	2361	Carnedd Llewellyn	3469
Pen-y-gent	2270	Carnedd David	3427
Holme Moss	1859	Cader Berwyn	2563
In the Cumbrian group—		Arran Fowddy	2955
Scaw Fell	3166	Cader Idris	2914
Helvellyn	3058	In S. Wales —	
Skiddaw	3022	Plinlimmon	2463
In Dartmoor—		Brecknock Beacon	2862
Cawsand Beacon	1792	Cradle Mountain	2545

Oxford, Reading, Windsor, and Eton, to London; from thence it is navigable for ships of large burden. It then passes Greenwich and Gravesend, below which it receives the Medway, and falls into the sea after a course of about 250 miles.

The south coast has no important river, although Southampton Water, the Exe, the Dart, and the Tamar, form excellent harbours for shipping.

On the west coast the Mersey is an inconsiderable stream, but forms a noble estuary at Liverpool.

The Dee rises above Bala in North Wales, and forms an estuary much encumbered with sand below Chester.

The Severn rises in Plinlimmon, on the confines of North and South Wales, and flows by Shrewsbury and Worcester to Tewkesbury, where it receives the Warwickshire Avon. It then flows by Gloucester into the Bristol Channel, receiving in its estuary the waters of the Somersetshire Avon and the Wye. Its length is about 240 miles.

The Wye rises near the sources of the Severn, and flowing by Hereford, Ross, and Monmouth, meets the Severn below Chepstow.

The chief English lakes are in the North. In Cumberland is Derwentwater. In Westmoreland, Ullswater and Windermere, the latter about 15 miles long. In Wales, Bala Lake, and the lakes of Llanberis, are the most important.

England was divided into shires by Alfred. These are also denominated counties, from having been governed by an ealderman, a dignity corresponding with that of the Latin *comes*, or count. The following are the English counties, with the most remarkable places mentioned under each. The area and population are given from returns to Parliament in the census of 1851. The county town is printed in *Italics*.

	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Population of Town.
NORTHUMBERLAND - - -	1952	303,568	
<i>Newcastle</i> , remarkable for its trade in coal and glass.	- -	- -	87,784
<i>Tynemouth</i> , the chief port for coal ships	- -	- -	29,170
In the north of this county is the moor of Flodden, where James IV. of Scotland was defeated and slain by the generals of Hen. VIII., 1513.			
DURHAM - - -	973	390,997	
<i>Durham</i> , with a cathedral and university.	- -	- -	13,188
Bishop's Wearmouth, including Sunderland, the great centre of the coal trade.	- -	- -	63,897
YORKSHIRE* - - -	5983	1,797,995	
<i>York</i> , the see of an archbishop	- -	- -	36,303
<i>Ripon</i> , with a cathedral	- -	- -	6,080
<i>Harrogate</i> , with mineral springs	- -	- -	3,678
<i>Marston</i> , where the forces of Charles I. were defeated by Cromwell.	- -	- -	421
<i>Leeds</i>	- -	- -	172,270
<i>Bradford</i>	- -	- -	103,778
<i>Halifax</i>	- -	- -	33,582
<i>Huddersfield</i>	- -	- -	30,880
<i>Wakefield</i>	- -	- -	22,065
<i>Pontefract</i> , where Richard II. was imprisoned and died, 1400.	- -	- -	5,106
<i>Hull</i> , the great port for the whale fishery and Russian trade.	- -	- -	84,690
<i>Sheffield</i> , celebrated for its cutlery	- -	- -	135,310
CUMBERLAND - - -	1565	195,492	
<i>Carlisle</i> , upon the Eden, with a cathedral.	- -	- -	26,310
<i>Whitehaven</i> , in a district rich in coal.	- -	- -	18,916
<i>St. Bees</i> , with a university	- -	- -	971
WESTMORELAND - - -	785	58,287	
<i>Appleby</i> . - -	- -	- -	2,709

	Extent in Sq. Miles.	Popula- tion.
* East Riding, including the city .	1,205	257,286
North Riding - - -	2,109	215,214
West Riding - - -	2,669	1,325,495
Total - - -	5,983	1,797,995

	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Population of town.
LANCASHIRE - - - -	1905	2,031,236	
<i>Lancaster</i> , on the Lune - -	- -	- -	14,604
Preston - - - -	- -	- -	69,542
Blackburn - - - -	- -	- -	46,536
Rochdale - - - -	- -	- -	29,195
Oldham - - - -	- -	- -	52,820
Ashton-under-Lyne - - - -	- -	- -	30,676
Manchester with Salford - - - -	- -	- -	367,282
Bolton - - - -	- -	- -	61,171
Wigan - - - -	- -	- -	31,941
Liverpool, second only to London in commercial importance.	- -	- -	375,955
CHESHIRE - - - -	1105	455,725	
<i>Chester</i> , with a cathedral - -	- -	- -	27,766
Stockport - - - -	- -	- -	53,835
Macclesfield - - - -	- -	- -	39,048
SHROPSHIRE - - - -	1291	229,341	
<i>Shrewsbury</i> - - - -	- -	- -	19,681
STAFFORDSHIRE - - - -	1138	608,716	
<i>Stafford</i> , where large numbers of shoes are made.	- -	- -	11,829
Wolverhampton, the centre of the great iron and coal mining, and iron manufactures.	- -	- -	49,985
Lichfield, with a cathedral - -	- -	- -	7,012
Stoke on Trent, celebrated for its porcelain manufactures. The population includes Burslem and Tunstall.	- -	- -	84,027
DERBYSHIRE - - - -	1029	296,084	
<i>Derby</i> - - - -	- -	- -	40,609
Matlock - - - -	- -	- -	4,010
Buxton { Celebrated for their mineral waters. }	- -	- -	1,235
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE - - - -	822	270,427	
<i>Nottingham</i> , with its suburbs { The seat of the hosiery and lace trade. }	- -	- -	57,407
LINCOLNSHIRE - - - -	2776	407,222	
<i>Lincoln</i> , with a cathedral - -	- -	- -	17,536
RUTLAND - - - -	150	22,983	
<i>Oakham</i> - - - -	- -	- -	3,031
LEICESTERSHIRE - - - -	803	230,308	
<i>Leicester</i> , with manufactures of hosiery	- -	- -	60,584
Market Bosworth, where Richard III. was defeated by Henry VII. and lost his crown and life, 1485.	- -	- -	1,058
Naseby, where Charles I. was utterly defeated by Cromwell, 1644.	- -	- -	898

	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Population of Towns.
WARWICKSHIRE - - -	881	475,013	
Warwick - - -	-	-	10,973
Leamington, with mineral waters -	-	-	15,692
Coventry, the seat of the ribbon and silk manufacture. - -	-	-	36,208
Birmingham, celebrated for its hard- ware. - -	-	-	232,841
WORCESTERSHIRE - - -	738	276,926	
Worcester, with a cathedral. Here Charles II. was defeated, 1651. Here also are china manufactories, and gloves are made. - -	-	-	27,528
Malvern, with mineral springs - -	-	-	3,771
HEREFORDSHIRE - - -	836	115,489	
Hereford, with a cathedral - -	-	-	12,108
MONMOUTHSHIRE - - -	576	157,418	
Monmouth - - -	-	-	27,379
GLOUCESTERSHIRE - - -	1258	458,805	
Gloucester, with a cathedral - -	-	-	17,572
Cheltenham, with mineral springs -	-	-	35,051
Tewkesbury, memorable for the defeat of Margaret of Anjou, and the de- struction of the Lancastrian party, by Edward IV. - -	-	-	5,878
Bristol, the great seat of the West Indian trade. It has a cathedral, but is united to the see of Gloucester. -	-	-	187,328
Berkeley, memorable for the murder of Edward II. 1327. - -	-	-	949
OXFORDSHIRE - - -	739	170,439	
Oxford, the see of a Bishop, and a university. - -	-	-	27,843
NORTHAMPTONSHIRE - - -	985	212,380	
Northampton - - -	-	-	26,657
Peterborough, with a cathedral -	-	-	8,672
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE - - -	730	163,723	
Aylesbury * - - -	-	-	6,081
BEDFORDSHIRE - - -	462	124,478	
Bedford - - -	-	-	11,698
HUNTINGDONSHIRE - - -	361	64,183	
Huntingdon - - -	-	-	3,882
CAMBRIDGESHIRE - - -	818	185,405	
Cambridge, with a university -	-	-	27,815
Ely, with a cathedral - -	-	-	6,176

* The county takes its name from Buckingham. Pop. 4020.

	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Population of Town.
NORFOLK - - - -	2116	442,714	
<i>Norwich</i> , the see of a Bishop. It is also the seat of a considerable shawl manufacture.	- -	- -	68,195
<i>Yarmouth</i> - - - -	- -	- -	30,879
<i>Lynn</i> , an important port on the Wash.	- -	- -	19,355
SUFFOLK - - - -	1481	337,215	
<i>Ipswich</i> - - - -	- -	- -	32,914
<i>Bury St. Edmunds</i> - - - -	- -	- -	13,900
ESSEX - - - -	1657	369,318	
<i>Colchester</i> - - - -	- -	- -	19,443
<i>Chelmsford</i> - - - -	- -	- -	6,033
HERTFORDSHIRE - - - -	611	167,298	
<i>Hertford</i> - - - -	- -	- -	6,605
<i>St. Albans</i> , celebrated for its abbey and for the overthrow of Henry VI. by the Duke of York, 1455.	- -	- -	7,000
MIDDLESEX - - - -	281	1,886,576	
<i>London</i> *, the capital of England. The see of a Bishop, and the greatest commercial city in the world.	- -	- -	127,869
KENT - - - -	1627	615,766	
<i>Maidstone</i> † - - - -	- -	- -	20,740
<i>Canterbury</i> , the see of an Archbishop	- -	- -	18,398
<i>Dover</i> , the nearest port to France	- -	- -	22,244
<i>Chatham</i> - - - -	- -	- -	22,399
<i>Rochester</i> , the see of a Bishop	- -	- -	14,938
<i>Woolwich</i> , a great arsenal	- -	- -	32,367
<i>Greenwich and Deptford</i> ‡	- -	- -	62,924
SURREY - - - -	748	683,082	
<i>Guildford</i> § - - - -	- -	- -	3,255

* The above is the City of London properly so called. But including Westminster, together with the populous districts extending from Chelsea to Stepney, and from Islington to Lambeth, throughout the whole of which the population is continuous, the aggregate population of London amounts as nearly as possible to 2,360,000.

† Some call Canterbury the chief town of Kent.

‡ Of which Greenwich contains 30,028.

§ And Kingston.

	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Population of Town.
SUSSEX - - - -	1461	336,844	
<i>Lewes*</i> - - - -	-	-	9,827
Brighton - - - -	-	-	75,469
Hastings, where the victory over Harold gave the crown of England to William the Conqueror, 1066.	-	-	16,966
Chichester, with a cathedral -	-	-	8,662
BREKSHIRE - - - -	705	170,065	
<i>Reading</i> - - - -	-	-	21,456
Windsor, the chief royal residence -	-	-	9,596
HAMPSHIRE - - - -	1672	405,370	
Winchester, with a cathedral -	-	-	13,704
<i>Southampton</i> , with a noble harbour -	-	-	35,305
Portsmouth, a great naval arsenal -	-	-	72,096
WILTSHIRE - - - -	1352	254,221	
<i>Salisbury</i> , with a cathedral. On Salis- bury Plain are the great druidical remains of Stonehenge.	-	-	11,675
DORSETSHIRE - - - -	987	184,207	
<i>Dorchester</i> - - - -	-	-	6,394
SOMERSETSHIRE - - - -	1636	443,916	
<i>Bath†</i> , with mineral springs. It is also the see of a Bishop.	-	-	54,240
Wells, united to the see of Bath. -	-	-	4,736
Taunton - - - -	-	-	14,176
Bridgewater - - - -	-	-	10,317
DEVONSHIRE - - - -	2589	567,098	
<i>Exeter</i> - - - -	-	-	32,188
Plymouth, includ- { The great ar- ing Devonport { senal of the west of England }	-	-	90,401
CORNWALL - - - -	1365	355,558	
<i>Launceston ‡</i> - - - -	-	-	3,397
Falmouth - - - -	-	-	4,953
Penzance, remarkable for its mild climate. - - - -	-	-	9,214
Truro - - - -	-	-	10,738
Total area and pop. of counties -	50,922	16,921,888	

* Some call Chichester the chief town, some Horsham. In general we may esteem that the chief town in which the assizes are held.

† The assizes are held here, and at Taunton and Bridgewater.

‡ And Bodmin.

		Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Population of Town.
WALES.				
North Wales.	FLINTSHIRE - - -	289	68,156	
	<i>Flint</i> - - -	-	-	3,296
	Holywell - - -	-	-	5,740
	St. Asaph, the see of a Bishop - - -	-	-	2,041
	DENBIGHSHIRE - - -	603	92,583	
	<i>Denbigh</i> - - -	-	-	5,498
	CARNAEVONSHIRE - - -	579	87,870	
	<i>Carnarvon</i> , where Edward II. was born. - - -	-	-	8,674
	Bangor, the see of a Bishop - - -	-	-	6,338
	ANGLESEA - - -	302	57,327	
	<i>Beaumaris</i> - - -	-	-	2,599
	Holyhead, the nearest port to Ireland. - - -	-	-	5,622
	MERIONETH - - -	602	38,843	
	<i>Dolgelly</i> * - - -	-	-	2,041
	MONTGOMERYSHIRE - - -	755	67,335	
	<i>Montgomery</i> - - -	-	-	1,248
		3,130	412,114	
South Wales.	RADNORSHIRE - - -	425	24,716	
	<i>Presteign</i> † - - -	-	-	1,617
	CARDIGANSHIRE - - -	693	70,796	
	<i>Cardigan</i> - - -	-	-	3,876
	Aberystwith - - -	-	-	5,231
	PEMBROKESHIRE - - -	628	94,140	
	<i>Pembroke</i> , near the magnificent harbour of Milford Haven. - - -	-	-	10,107
	St. David's, the see of a Bishop - - -	-	-	2,452
	CARMARTHENSHIRE - - -	947	110,632	
	<i>Carmarthen</i> - - -	-	-	10,524
	BRECKNOCKSHIRE - - -	719	61,474	
	<i>Brecon</i> - - -	-	-	6,070
	GLAMORGANSHIRE - - -	856	231,849	
	<i>Cardiff</i> - - -	-	-	18,351
	Swansea - - -	-	-	31,461
	Merthyr Tydvil, the centre of great coal and iron mines. - - -	-	-	48,985
		4,268	593,607	
Total area and pop. of Wales		7,398	1,005,721	

* The county elections are held at Harlech.

† The county takes its name from Radnor.

Of the islands on the coasts of England and Wales, three only are important:—The Isle of Wight, included in the county of Hampshire, enjoys a remarkably mild climate. The Isle of Anglesea, divided from Carnarvonshire by the Menai Straits, is approached by the suspension and tubular bridges, some of the greatest efforts of modern engineering. The Isle of Man, about midway between Cumberland and the Irish coast, long possessed a separate jurisdiction.*

Among the minor islands may be mentioned Lindisfarne or Holy Island, off Northumberland; Sheppey in the mouth of the Thames, Lundy Isle in the Bristol Channel, Skomer off Pembrokeshire, and Bardsey island off Carnarvonshire, the last refuge of the British Bards. To these may be added Holy Island, now united to Anglesea by a bridge.

The islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, off the coast of France, also belong to Great Britain.†

The English climate is much more temperate than that of the corresponding latitudes on the continent of Europe. It is, however, somewhat humid, and the West of England more so than the East. This arises from its insular position. The prevailing westerly winds come charged with moisture from the Atlantic, and at the same time blow with softened rigour, the temperature of the ocean being higher than that of the air in winter. The result is, that the verdure of England surpasses that of almost every country in the world.

The mineral wealth of England consists of immense coal-fields which run southward from Durham, through Yorkshire and Derbyshire to Staffordshire, and reappear in Glamorgan and Somerset. Another bed is found about Whitehaven, where it dips under the Irish Sea, and reappears

* Area, 280 E. sq. miles; Pop. 52,387.

† Area, about 91 sq. miles; Pop. 90,739.

in Anglesea. To these the wealth and prosperity of the country is in great measure owing, as they furnish almost unlimited steam-power for our manufactures, our railroads, and our navigation. A great amount of iron is raised in Staffordshire and South Wales. Copper is found in considerable abundance in Wales and Cornwall; lead in Cumberland, Derbyshire, Shropshire, and Cornwall. In Cornwall it is mixed with silver; but the most important mines in this county are those of tin. There are also valuable salt mines in Cheshire and Worcestershire; plumbago in Cumberland, and slate in Cumberland and Wales.

Valuable oak timber is grown in Gloucestershire and Hampshire; wheat, barley, oats, and other agricultural products, are of the highest excellence, as are oxen, sheep, horses, and swine. The fisheries off the coast are productive.

The manufactures of England and Wales are the most extensive in the world. Iron and steel are very largely wrought in Staffordshire. Fire-arms and various utensils in mixed metals at Birmingham. The cutlery of Sheffield is of the highest celebrity. Wool is very extensively manufactured in Yorkshire, Wiltshire, Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, and Wales. Cotton to an immense amount in Lancashire. Hosiery, net, and lace in Nottingham and Leicester. Linen in Cumberland, Lancashire, Salop, and Somerset. Silk in Manchester, Derby, Coventry, and London. Carpets are made in Worcester, Wilts, and Somerset. Shipbuilding is carried on in almost every port.

On the decay of the Roman empire England was conquered by the Saxons, about 450, and was subsequently overrun by the Danes, who, after many temporary repulses from Alfred and other princes, became masters of the country in 1017. In 1066, the battle of Hastings gave the kingdom to the Normans, under William I. The

antient Britons were thus driven gradually to the west, and are now represented by the Welsh. In about 1282 Edward I. subdued Wales, which has thenceforward been united to England, although using a separate language. Ireland was subdued by Elizabeth. James I. of England and VI. of Scotland, succeeding Elizabeth in 1603, united the crowns of England and Scotland. The expulsion of his descendants and the accession of William III., in 1688, established the constitutional principles which we still enjoy, and the union of the Parliaments of England and Ireland in 1800 consolidated the British Islands into one kingdom, to the great advantage of both countries.

The Government is a limited monarchy, the consent of the Houses of Lords and Commons as well as the assent of the Crown being requisite to every measure before it can become law.

The established religion of England and Wales is Protestant Episcopalian. The term Protestant is derived from the Protest of the Elector of Hanover and certain other German Princes against the decree of the Diet of Spire for the maintenance of the Roman Catholic religion, 1530. — Among the principal errors renounced and opposed by Protestants are Transubstantiation, or the belief that the consecrated wafer, or Host, as it is called from *Hostia*, a victim, is absolutely changed, in the Lord's Supper, into the substantial body and blood of Christ; Purgatory, or the intermediate state of punishment between this life and the final judgment, from whence the souls of men can be delivered by the prayers, alms, or penances of the faithful; the Intercession of Saints, the Worship of the Virgin Mary, the use of Images and Relics, False Miracles, and the Celibacy of the Clergy. Against these and many other superstitions or erroneous doctrines the Reformed Churches protest, and are therefore called Protestant.

The term Episcopalian is added to distinguish a church

retaining the form of church government by Bishops from such as reject it.

Throughout the British dominions all sects are in the enjoyment of the freest toleration for the exercise of their faith.

The Colonies of Great Britain embrace every quarter of the globe. In Europe, the detached posts of Gibraltar and Malta in the Mediterranean, and the islands of Heligoland in the German Ocean, furnish points of refuge for shipping in war. In Asia, to the vast Indian empire may be added isolated posts at Aden in Arabia, Singapore in the Malay peninsula, Labuan off Borneo, and the island of Hong-Kong, off the coast of China. In Australasia, the great continent of Australia and the islands of New Zealand belong wholly to Great Britain. In Africa, besides various points in Senegambia and Guinea, the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, occupying the extremity of Southern Africa, is ours; as are also the islands of Ascension, St. Helena, Mauritius, and the Seychelles. The whole of North America above the United States is under British dominion, except the extreme north-west, as are also the Bermudas, great part of the West Indian Isles, together with Belize on the Caribbean Sea. In South America, British Guiana is our only possession, except the Falkland Isles and some regions further south, which we may be said rather to have discovered than to possess.

Sect. 2. SCOTLAND.

Area, 29,744 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1851, 2,888,742.

To the north of England is Scotland (Pl. VI.), bounded by the Atlantic on the north and west, and by the German Ocean on the east.

The chief capes on the eastern coast are Duncansby Head, Tarbet Ness, Kinnaird's Head, Fife Ness, and

St. Abbs Head. On the west are Cape Wrath, the Mull of Cantire, and the Mull of Galloway.

The coast is indented by many arms of the sea, called Lochs or Firths. On the east coast are the Firths of Dornoch, Cromarty, and Moray, and of Tay and Forth. On the north Loch Eriboll, and on the west Lochs Broome, Sunart, Linnhe, Etive, and Fyne, to which may be added the Firth of Clyde and its branch Loch Long, and the Solway Firth, the boundary toward England.

The chief mountains are the Grampians, which stretch across the country from south-west to north-east, dividing it into two districts, familiarly known as the Highlands and Lowlands. This chain contains most of the higher Scotch mountains, many points rising above 4000 feet. Ben Nevis, an outlying point to the north-west, is the highest mountain in the British isles, though Ben M'Dui is its near rival.

Parallel to these mountains is a remarkable region of depression, occupied by Loch Lochy, Loch Oich, and Loch Ness, through which the Caledonian Canal is conducted—a great work, connecting the Atlantic and the German Ocean. Beyond it another irregular chain of mountains occupies the whole north-west of Scotland, leaving Caithness a comparative plain to the north-east. In the Lowlands, the Cheviot Hills, already mentioned, throw off a north-westerly branch, some of whose summits reach 2700 feet.*

* Some of the chief points, with their altitudes, are subjoined.

	<i>Feet.</i>		<i>Feet.</i>
In or near the Grampians:—		Ben Voirlich	3,207
Ben Nevis	4,368	Ben Ledi	2,863
Cairngorm	4,095	Ben Venue	3,000
Ben M'Dui	4,348	Ben Lomond	3,195
Ben Gloe	3,724	Ben Wyvis	3,720
Schiehallion	3,513	In Peebles-shire—	
Ben Lawers	3,941	The Braidlaw Hills	2,700
Ben More	3,903		

The rivers of Scotland are of no great magnitude. On the western coast the Clyde is the principal stream. It rises in Tweeddale, and flowing by Lanark, Glasgow, and Dumbarton, forms an estuary at Greenock. Its falls near Lanark are of much picturesque beauty. On the eastern coast, the Spey, the Dee, the Tay, the Forth, and the Tweed, are the principal rivers.

The Spey rises on the north side of the Grampians, flows in a direction nearly parallel to their base, dividing the counties of Banff and Elgin, and falls into the North Sea at Garmouth.

The Dee rises a little south of Ben M'Dui, and, running between two parallel branches of the Grampians, falls into the sea at Aberdeen. The Tay rises in Loch Tay, south of the Grampians, and, flowing with an eccentric course by Perth, falls into the North Sea near Dundee. The Forth rises near Ben Lomond, and, flowing by Stirling, forms the estuary of the Firth of Forth near Edinburgh. It is the greatest of the Scotch rivers, and its course is often very circuitous. Including its windings it may extend 180 miles.

The Tweed rises in Tweeddale, not far from the source of the Clyde, and flows by Peebles, Kelso, and Coldstream, into the sea near Berwick.

The Scotch lakes are very numerous. It may suffice to mention—in Sutherland, Loch Shin; in Inverness, Loch Lochy and Loch Ness; in Argyleshire, Loch Awe, one of the largest Scotch lakes; in Perthshire, Loch Tay, already mentioned, Loch Katrine, and Loch Vennachar, with the surrounding picturesque scenery of the Trossachs; in Stirlingshire is Loch Lomond, 25 miles long, and beautifully studded with islands; in Kinross is Loch Leven, memorable for its island, in which Mary Queen of Scots was imprisoned in 1567.

Scotland comprises the following 33 counties. The most remarkable places are mentioned with each:—

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>	<i>Ch. Places.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>
Orkney and Shetland } Isles	1,320	62,533	Kirkwall	2,448
Caithness	697	38,705	Wick	1,514
Sutherland	1,801	25,793	Dornoch	599
Ross *	2,709	82,707	Tain	2,588
Cromarty †	266		Cromarty	1,988
Inverness	4,245	96,500	Inverness	9,969

Five miles E. of
Inverness is Culloden, where
Charles Stuart was finally de-
feated, 1746.

Nairn	198	9,956	Nairn	3,401
Elgin or Moray *	480	38,959	Elgin	5,383

S. W. of Elgin is
Forres, where Shakspeare lays
the opening scene of Macbeth.

Banff	647	54,171	Banff	3,557
Aberdeen	1,970	212,032	{ Aberdeen } (an uni- versity).	53,808
Kincardine or } Mearns	382	34,598	Stonehaven †	3,240
Forfar or Angus	892	191,264	{ Montrose } Forfar Dundee Arbroath	14,328 9,311 61,449 8,302
Perth	2,638	138,660	Perth	14,681
Fife	470	153,546	{ Cupar } Dumfermline	4,005 8,577

* The area of Ross includes 580 sq. miles of island.

† Cromarty is so incorporated with Ross as not to be separated in description.

‡ The antient county town was Kincardine, now a small hamlet in the parish of Fordoun.

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>	<i>Ch. Places.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>
Kinross	79	8,924	Kinross	2,590
Clackmannan	48	22,951	Clackmannan	1,535
Stirling	502	86,237	{ Stirling	9,361
			{ Falkirk	8,752

Where Edward I. defeated Sir William Wallace, 1298, and where Charles Stuart defeated the royal forces, 1746.

A little north of this is Bannockburn, where Edward II. was totally defeated by Robert Bruce, 1314.

Dumbarton	259	45,103	Dumbarton	4,590
Argyll*, or } Argyle }	3,210	89,298	Inverary	1,164
Bute	165	16,608	Rothsay	7,104
Renfrew	227	161,091	{ Renfrew	2,722
			{ Paisley	31,752
			{ Greenock	36,689
Lanark	945	530,169	{ Lanark	5,304
			{ Glasgow†	148,116
Linlithgow or } West Lothian }	120	30,135	Linlithgow	4,071
Edinburgh or } Mid Lothian }	354	259,435	{ Edinburgh†	66,734
			{ Leith	30,919
Haddington or } East Lothian }	272	36,386	Haddington	2,887
Berwick or } Merse }	442	36,297	{ Greenlaw	842
			{ Berwick§	15,094
Roxburgh	715	51,642	Jedburgh	2,948
Selkirk	265	9,809	Selkirk	3,314
Peebles	319	10,738	Peebles	1,982
Dumfries	1,263	78,123	Dumfries	11,107

* Including 950 miles comprised in various islands.

† Glasgow with its suburbs contains 344,986 persons.

‡ Edinburgh with its suburbs has a population of 160,511.

§ The town of Berwick is in England.

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>	<i>Ch. Places.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>
Ayr	1,045	189,858	{ Ayr	9,115
			{ Kilmarnock	19,201
Kirkcudbright	843	43,121	Kirkcudbright	2,778
Wigton	459	43,389	Wigton	2,232
	29,744	2,888,742		

The islands of Scotland are numerous, and may be divided into four groups.

The Shetland Isles are the extreme north-east; of these Mainland and Yell are the principal. Below them, separated by a channel about 50 miles in width, are the Orkneys, of which the largest is Pomona, called also Mainland; but the nearest to the Scottish coast is Hoy. Between Hoy and the shores of Caithness is the Pentland Firth, through which the tide rushes with dangerous impetuosity. The general character of both these groups is that of dreary heaths and ironbound coasts, much frequented by sea-fowl. Off the western coast of Scotland are the Outer Hebrides or Western Isles, and the Inner Hebrides, which are separated from the Outer by a strait called the Minch. Among the Outer Hebrides, Lewis and Harris form one island, nearly divided by opposite arms of the sea. Below this are North and South Uist. Among the Inner Hebrides it may suffice to mention Skye, nearly adjoining Inverness; and Mull, nearly adjoining Argyll: to the north-west of Mull is the little island of Icolmkill or Iona, celebrated for the remains of the monastery of St. Columba, who introduced Christianity in 565; and a little south-west of it the remarkable basaltic island of Staffa. Below Mull are Jura and Islay; and at the entrance of the Firth of Clyde, Bute and Arran. The scenery of the latter is peculiarly picturesque.

The climate of Scotland is both severer and damper than that of England; the elevation of the mountainous

districts contributes in part to both these causes. The temperature is, however, far more even than in places of the same latitude upon the continent, although the summers are less warm.

The mineral riches of Scotland lie almost wholly south of the Grampians. Coal and iron abound in the estuary of the Forth, and throughout Lanark and Ayrshire. Lead is found in the counties of Lanark and Dumfries.

Agriculture is practised on the most improved principles, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate. Wheat, barley, and oats, are the chief products. Timber is not abundant, and that furnished by the pine forests is of little value. The Scotch cattle and sheep are much improved; and the Shetland Isles furnish a small active race of ponies. The coasts swarm with fish, and the fisheries, especially of salmon and herrings, employ many hands. Enterprise pervades most classes; manufactures of cotton and linen are very extensively carried on; iron is largely manufactured; and the distilleries for the production of whiskey are numerous.

The Romans appear hardly to have penetrated beyond the Clyde and Forth, and their withdrawal from Britain was little felt in Scotland. About the time of Alfred, Kenneth II. is said to have united Scotland into one kingdom. The various Highland chieftains, however, yielded a precarious obedience to the crown; and the Shetland Isles, Orkneys, and Hebrides, were subject to Norway, but were reduced about 1260. The Scotch and English crowns were united in the person of James I.; and though Scotland suffered severely by her support of the House of Stuart, after the accession of that of Hanover to the British throne, there can be no question that the union has contributed most materially to the prosperity of the country.

The established religion is Presbyterian or Calvinistic.* Among the leading features of Calvinism are a belief in predestination, election and reprobation, and irresistible grace, together with the rejection of episcopacy. Instead of the latter, Calvin proposed that the church should be governed by presbyteries and synods composed of clergy and laity. Hence the term Presbyterian. All forms are, however, tolerated.

Although the government is that of England, many of the English laws do not apply to Scotland, and there are distinct tribunals for the administration of justice. Representative peers from Scotland sit in the British House of Lords, and members for the House of Commons are elected 29 in England.

Sect. 3. IRELAND.

Area, 32,192 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1851, 6,515,794.

To the west of England and Wales is Ireland (Pl. V.), bounded on the north and west by the Atlantic, on the south and east by St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea.

It is subdivided into four provinces:—Ulster in the north-east; Leinster in the south-east; Connaught in the north-west; Munster in the south-west.

The principal capes are Fair Head, opposite to the Mull of Cantire in Scotland, and Carnsore Point, the south-eastern angle of the island: Cape Clear, upon an island,

* John Calvin, more properly Chauvin, or Cauvin, was born at Noyon in Picardy, A.D. 1509. The persecution of Protestants in France obliged him to fly to Geneva, where he established his system, and died 1564.

the southernmost point ; Mizen Head, Crow Head, Bolus Head, and Dunmore Head, promontories to the south-west : Loop Head, the northern point of the mouth of the Shannon ; Slyne Head ; Achill Head, upon an island ; and Erris Head, on the west : together with Rossan Point, Bloody Foreland, and Malin Head, in the north-west. The latter is the northernmost point in the island.

Between these lie many deep bays and estuaries. On the north, Lough Swilly and Lough Foyle. On the east coast, Belfast Lough, Lough Strangford, Dundrum Bay, Dundalk Bay, Dublin Bay, and Wexford Harbour. In the south, the harbours of Waterford, Dungarvan, and Cork. In the west, Bantry Bay, Kenmare River, Dingle Bay, Tralee Bay, the estuary of the Shannon, Galway Bay, Clew Bay, and the Bays of Killala, Sligo, and Donegal.

The greater part of Ireland, especially toward the centre, is a plain. Its mountains form interrupted groups which have generally a north-east and south-west direction. On the north coast is the singular basaltic mass called the Giant's Causeway. South-west of this are the Sperrin Mountains, and to the east of them the Blue Stack ; and a little north of Dundalk Bay, the Mourne Mountains. All these are in Ulster. In Leinster, the Wicklow Mountains are the principal group, and rise to 3000 feet ; and about 50 miles west of them is Sliebh Bloom. In Connaught, the Ox Mountains, and the twelve pins near Slyne Head, are the principal. The most considerable mountains of Ireland, however, are in Munster, and consist of the Doon, Galtee, and Commeragh Mountains toward the east, and the Clanruddery Mountains and M'Gillicuddy Reeks toward the south-west. The latter rise amid the picturesque scenery of Killarney, and reach 3400 feet.

The chief river of Ireland is the Shannon, a noble stream which flows through Loughs Allen, Ree, and Derg, and

forms a great estuary below Limerick. It is navigable into Lough Allen, and thus affords the greatest facilities for internal communication. Its course is about 220 miles. The only other river of importance on the west coast is the Erne, which flows through Lough Erne into the Atlantic, at Ballyshannon.

The Bann rises in the Mourne Mountains, flows through Lough Neagh, the largest of the Irish lakes, and falls into the sea near Coleraine. It is too rapid for navigation. The Boyne is memorable for the battle fought upon its banks by James II. and William III., July 1, 1690, whereby the latter was finally established on the British throne. It falls into the Irish Sea below Drogheda.

The Liffey is an inconsiderable stream, ennobled by flowing through the capital. The Barrow rises west of the Wicklow Mountains, and, being joined by the Nore and Suir, falls into the sea below Waterford.

The Blackwater rises east of the Lakes of Killarney, and falls into the sea at Youghal.

The lakes of Ireland are numerous. Lough Neagh, already mentioned, is 20 miles long and 12 broad. Lough Erne is longer, but narrow ; Lough Allen, Lough Ree, and Lough Derg, on the Shannon, have been already mentioned. Lough Mask and Lough Corrib, in the extreme west, are important lakes ; but perhaps the most celebrated lakes in Ireland are those of Killarney, which for beauty and variety of scenery are unrivalled.

The above-mentioned provinces of Ireland were subdivided, in the reigns of James I. and Charles I., into the counties enumerated below. Their chief towns have in many instances fallen into decay.

Province of ULSTER.

	<i>E. Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>	<i>C. Towns.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>
Antrim	1,191	358,503	{ Carrickfergus	3,543
			{ Belfast*	102,103
Down	907	317,778	{ Downpatrick	4,630
			{ Newry	13,556
Armagh	512	196,420	Armagh	9,058
Monaghan	499	143,410	Monaghan	4,124
Cavan	745	174,303	Cavan	4,520
Fermanagh	714	115,978	Enniskillen	6,867
Tyrone	1,104	251,865	Omagh	3,385
Donegal	1,864	254,288	Lifford	1,096
Londonderry or Derry	810	191,744	Londonderry	20,479
	8,346	2,004,289		

Province of LEINSTER.

Louth	313	107,921	{ Drogheda	17,533
			{ Dundalk	10,983
Meath	905	139,706	Trim	2,612
Dublin	345	402,356	Dublin	258,361
Wicklow	708	99,287	Wicklow	3,141
Wexford	897	180,170	Wexford	12,471
Kilkenny	794	160,217	Kilkenny	19,973
Carlow	345	68,157	Carlow	11,582
Kildare	653	96,627	Kildare	1,000
Queen's County	662	109,747	Maryborough	2,635
King's County	771	112,874	Tullamore	6,848
Westmeath	704	107,510	Mullingar	6,812
Longford	420	83,198	Longford	6,387
	7,517	1,667,770		

* Belfast is partly in county Down.

Province of CONNAUGHT.

	<i>E. Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Pop. in 1851.</i>	<i>C. Towns.</i>	<i>Pop. 1851.</i>
Leitrim	613	111,808	Carrick	1,366
Sligo	721	128,796	Sligo	13,320
Mayo	2,131	274,716	Castlebar	6,020
Galway	2,447	322,826	Galway	24,496
Roscommon	945	173,798	Roscommon	4,623
	6,857	1,011,944		

Province of MUNSTER.

Tipperary	1,658	323,829	{ Cashel	8,241
			{ Clonmel	14,712
Waterford	721	162,503	Waterford	26,203
Cork	2,884	637,637	Cork	90,022
Kerry	1,853	238,241	Tralee	13,647
Limerick	1,063	256,837	Limerick	56,535
Clare	1,293	212,720	Ennis	12,165
	9,472	1,831,767		

The islands of Ireland are chiefly on the west coast. Arranmore lies off Donegal. Achill Island, off Mayo, has magnificent precipices towards the Atlantic. The isles of Arran, in Galway Bay, belong to county Clare. Valentia Island, Bear Island, and Cape Clear Island, are off the south-western promontories.

The climate is temperate, and subject to fewer variations than that of England. More rain, however, falls, and a damper atmosphere prevails. Coal is found in Kilkenny, and south-westward down to Kerry; also in Monaghan, and about Lough Allen. The southernmost of these lines leads up toward the coal-field of Whitehaven; the northern, toward those of Scotland. Throughout the country peat abounds, and is much used for fuel. The chief agricultural products are potatoes, oats, wheat, barley, and flax. Cattle and sheep, and especially pigs, are reared in

great numbers. Fish are abundant on the coasts, but the salmon fishery is that to which most attention is paid.

The principal manufactures are those of linen and poplin, a mixed fabric of silk and wool, which is carried on at Belfast, Dublin, and Waterford. The distillation of spirits, chiefly whiskey, is extensive.

St. Patrick, or Patricius, introduced Christianity among the barbarous tribes of Ireland in the fifth century. Henry II. overran the country in 1171, but it was not effectively reduced under British government till the time of Elizabeth. Cromwell subsequently crushed all attempts to resist the English ascendancy, and the victory of William III. over James II. at the Boyne gave rise to much oppression of the Irish people, who had generally espoused the cause which seemed favourable to the Roman Catholic religion. Up to the year 1800, Ireland had its own parliament, but in that year a union was effected between Great Britain and Ireland, and it has since sent representatives to the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The wrongs of many generations are gradually being redressed. The emigration of a crowded population has recently afforded great means for improvement. Education is making progress, and there is good hope that prosperous times are yet in store for Ireland.

The religion of the North is very generally Presbyterian, much of the population being of Scotch extraction; that of the South is almost wholly Roman Catholic. The established religion, however, is that of the Church of England, which numbers not quite 1,000,000 followers; while the Roman Catholics are probably about 5,000,000, and the Presbyterians 600,000. Other denominations are inconsiderable bodies. All forms are tolerated, and the Emancipation Act of 1829 has removed the disabilities under which the Roman Catholics had previously laboured.

Sect. 4. FRANCE.

Area, 203,736 E. sq. miles. — Pop. in 1846, 35,400,486.

France (Pl. VII.) is separated from England by the Straits of Dover, and is bounded on the north by Belgium and the English Channel, on the west by the Bay of Biscay, and on the south by the Gulf of Lyons and the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain. On the east it is separated from Germany by the Rhine, from Switzerland by the Jura, and from Italy by the Alps.

France was formerly divided into thirty-two provinces, and is now formed into eighty-six departments. It is scarcely necessary to trouble the learner with the catalogue of names, but they are thrown into a note for the purpose of reference.*

* In the following list, the names to which the figures are attached are those of the former provinces, which are followed by the names of the departments to which they either wholly or in part correspond.

1 French Flanders.	7 Alsace.	15 Anjou.
The North.	Lower Rhine.	Mayenne et
2 Artois.	Upper Rhine.	Loire.
Straits of Calais.	8 Franche Comté.	16 Maine et Perche.
3 Picardy.	Upper Saone.	Mayenne.
Somme.	Doubs.	Sarthe.
4 Isle of France.	Jura.	17 Normandy.
Seine.	9 Burgundy.	Lower Seine.
Seine et Oise.	Côte d'Or.	Eure.
Oise.	Saone et Loire.	Calvados.
Aisne.	Ain.	The Channel.
Seine et Marne.	10 Nivernois.	Orne.
5 Champagne.	Nièvre.	18 Brittany.
Ardennes.	11 Bourbonnois.	Isle et Vi-
Marne.	Allier.	laine.
Aube.	12 Berry.	North Coast.
Upper Marne.	Cher.	Finisterre.
Yonne.	Indre.	Morbihan.
6 Lorraine.	13 Tourraine.	Lower Loire.
Meuse.	Indre et Loire.	19 Poitou.
Moselle.	14 Orleannois.	Vendée.
Meurthe.	Loir et Cher.	Deux Sevres.
Vosges.	Loiret.	Vienne.
	Eure et Loir.	

The principal capes on the Atlantic are Cape Gris Nez ; La Hogue, memorable for the victory of the British and Dutch fleets over the French, 1692 ; and the promontory of Finisterre. In the Mediterranean is Cape Sicie. The mountains of France are chiefly in the east and south. The Vosges and Jura form the easternmost chain. Their highest points are rather above 5000 feet. Another chain commences in the Forest of Ardennes, and, stretching nearly parallel to the former, extends almost to the Mediterranean; the Cevennes, in their southern part, reach near 6000 feet. This chain forms the watershed between the rivers that fall into the Mediterranean or the Rhone, and those which fall into the Atlantic. Still westward is a remarkable extinct volcanic district, in which Mont d'Or, Puy de Dôme, and Mont Cantal, rise between 6000 and 7000 feet. On the south, the Pyrenees form a continuous chain, which will be mentioned in the description of Spain. In the south-east the Alps are a very lofty range, several points attaining an altitude of 14,000 feet.

Three considerable rivers fall into the Atlantic: the

20 Aunis Santonge et Angoumois.	Drome.	29 Guienne.
Lower Charente.	Upper Alps.	Gironde.
Charente.	26 Provence.	Dordogne.
21 Marche.	Lower Alps.	Lot et Garonne.
Creuse.	Mouths of Rhone.	Lot.
22 Limousin.	Var.	Tarn et Garonne.
Upper Vienne.	27 Venaissen.	Aveiron.
Corrèze.	Vaucluse.	30 Gascogne.
23 Auvergne.	28 Languedoc.	Landes.
Puy de Dôme.	Upper Loire.	Gers.
Cantal.	Ardèche.	Upp. Pyrenees.
24 Lyonnais et Bresse.	Lozère.	31 Navarre et Bearn.
Loire.	Gard.	Low. Pyrenees.
Rhone.	Herault.	32 Roussillon.
25 Dauphiné.	Tarn.	East. Pyrenees.
Isère.	Arriège.	Corsica.
	Upper Garonne.	
	Aude.	

Seine, the Loire, and the Garonne. The Seine rises not far from Dijon, receives the Marne and Oise from the north, and the Yonne from the south, and, flowing by Paris and Rouen, falls into the sea at Havre, after a course of 500 miles, of which 300 are navigable.

The Loire rises in the Cevennes, receives the Allier and Cher from the south, and flows by Orleans and Nantes into the Atlantic. Its course is 650 miles, 520 of which are navigable.

The Garonne rises in the Pyrenees. It receives the Tarn and Lot on the right, and the Dordogne at its estuary, below Bordeaux, and then loses its name in that of the Gironde. The principal river flowing into the Mediterranean is the Rhone, which rises in the glacier of the Furka, in Switzerland, flows through the Lake of Geneva, and after passing a narrow gorge where its waters are nearly over-arched by rocks, receives the Saone at Lyons, and, subsequently, the Isère, Drome, and Durance, and forms a delta westward of Marseilles.

The most remarkable places are as follows:—

Paris, the capital, with a population of above 1,000,000. It is situated on the Seine.

North of the basin of the Seine are —

Dunkerque, a frequent object of contention between the English, French, and Spaniards, during the contests from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century.

Lille, a fortified town, population 67,000, the chief seat of the cotton manufactures.

Valenciennes, formerly the seat of a flourishing lace trade.

Malplaquet, a small place where the Duke of Marlborough defeated the French army in 1709, giving one of the first serious checks to the power of Louis XIV.

Calais, the nearest port to England, which is distant about 23 miles.

Boulogne, a port upon the shortest route from London to Paris.

Agincourt, where Henry V. defeated the French with very great slaughter, 1415.

Crecy, where Edward III. defeated Philip VI. of Valois, 1346.
 Amiens, where the treaty of peace was concluded between England and France, 1802.

In the basin of the Moselle and Rhine are—

Metz, a strongly fortified place with 42,000 inhabitants.
 Strasbourg, on the Rhine, strongly fortified. Its cathedral is one of the finest in France. Pop. 52,000.

In the basin of the Seine, in addition to the capital are—

Havre, the port of Paris. Pop. 21,000.
 Rouen, with large cotton manufactures, and a population of near 100,000. Its noble cathedral is the burial place of our Richard I.
 Versailles, a royal residence.
 Rheims, where the kings of France were formerly crowned. It is also the chief seat of the woollen manufacture. Pop. 36,000.

Between the basins of the Seine and Loire are—

Caen, in the neighbourhood of important stone quarries.
 Cherbourg, the Portsmouth of the north of France.
 Brest, with a magnificent harbour and arsenal. Pop. 30,000.

In the basin of the Loire —

Nantes, a large commercial city with 88,000 inhabitants. It is memorable for the Edict of Nantes, in which Henry IV. granted toleration to Protestants, 1598. Its revocation by Louis XIV., in 1685, was the cause of much bloodshed and cruelty.
 Poitiers, where Edward the Black Prince defeated a greatly superior French force in 1356, taking John King of France prisoner.
 Tours, formerly much frequented by the English.
 Orleans, where Joan of Arc, thence called the Maid of Orleans, repulsed the English, 1429. It gave the title of duke to the late royal family of France.
 St. Etienne, near the source of the Loire, with manufactures of hardware and silk. Pop. 47,000.

In the basin of the Garonne and south of it are —

Bordeaux, a large commercial city with 100,000 inhabitants. The centre of the claret vineyards, and famed for its brandy distilleries.

Toulouse, with a population of 72,000. It surrendered to the English, after a sanguinary conflict without the walls, in 1814, the last contest of the war.

Pau, a favourite watering place near the Pyrenees.

Bayonne, on the Adour.

In the basin of the Rhone, and on the Mediterranean coast are —

Dijon.

Lyons, with a population, suburbs included, of 200,000, the great centre of the silk manufacture. Jacquard invented the ingenious loom for figured patterns in this place.

Avignon, a residence of the Popes during the schism which divided Italy in the fourteenth century.

Nismes, with remarkable Roman remains.

Montpellier, celebrated for its mild climate.

Perpignan, one of the most strongly fortified places in France.

Marseilles, an important seaport, with 150,000 inhabitants.

Toulon, the great arsenal of the Mediterranean.

The chief islands belonging to France are, Ushant, near Brest; Oléron, near the mouth of the Garonne. The islands of Hieres, near Toulon, remarkable for the mildness of their climate, and Corsica in the Mediterranean. This island is traversed from north to south by a mountain chain, whose greatest elevation exceeds 7000 feet. Its chief towns are —

Bastia, the former capital, and,

Ajaccio, the present capital, and the birth-place of the late Emperor Napoleon I.

The climate of France is liable to much vicissitude; the winters of Paris being much severer than those of Edinburgh, while the summers are much hotter than those of London. The south of France is more temperate, and liable to less fluctuation.

Coal, iron, and salt, are the principal minerals.

Its vegetables are, corn, including maize; beet-root, largely manufactured into sugar; vines, olives, cavers, and

oranges. The three last are grown chiefly in the neighbourhood of the Mediterranean. Cattle and horses, but neither of the highest class, are reared. Sheep are an important branch of rural wealth. Bees and silkworms receive a large amount of attention, especially in the south.

Amongst the manufactures, those of silk, wool, cotton, lace, gloves, wine, sugar, brandy, arms, jewellery, and porcelain, are the chief. In commercial importance France is second only to England, and is equalled by no other country in Europe.

On the decline of the Roman Empire, France was overrun by the Visigoths, who passed on to Spain; the Franks, who gave their name to the country; the Burgundians, who seized the eastern provinces; and, subsequently, by the Saracens, who obtained possession of that part bordering on the Mediterranean. Charles Martel checked the latter in a decisive battle in 732, and his grandson Charlemagne ruled over the greater part of France. After his death the Normans overran the west, and the country in other parts became split up into petty dukedoms, which were gradually again absorbed into the crown of France, Louis XIV. reigning over pretty nearly the present kingdom. The abuses of a nearly absolute monarch ended in the sanguinary revolution of 1789. This was succeeded by the Consulate, and afterwards the empire of Napoleon, whose ambition uniting all Europe in resistance, the monarchy was restored in 1815 by his final overthrow at Waterloo. A revolution in 1830 changed the dynasty; and a third in 1848, as remarkable for the absence of bloodshed as that of 1789 was for its excess, again proclaimed a republic. In 1852 this was superseded by the re-establishment of the empire under Louis Napoleon, nephew of the former Emperor.

The religion of France is very generally Roman Catholic; but no form is established, and toleration is granted to all. Infidelity is said largely to prevail.

The principal foreign dependencies of France are Pondicherry and a few other settlements in Hindostan (Pl. XX.). Algiers on the north coast of Africa (Pl. XXII.); Senegal and Goree on the west, and the Island of Bourbon on the east, of that continent. French Guiana in South America (Pl. XXVII.), and Martinique and Guadaloupe in the West Indies (Pl. XXVI.).

Sect. 5. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Spain } Area, { 182,758 } Eng. sq. miles.—Pop. { 12,168,774.
Portugal } { 35,260 } { 3,412,500.

Spain and Portugal (Pl. XIV.), form a peninsula in the extreme south-west of Europe, and under this term are frequently spoken of together.

Spain is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees and the Bay of Biscay; on the west by the Atlantic, and Portugal; on the south and east by the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean.

The principal capes are those of Ortegal and Finisterre in the north-west, and of Trafalgar off the Straits of Gibraltar. Near to this point Lord Nelson defeated the combined fleets of France and Spain, and fell in the moment of victory, 1805. In the Mediterranean are Capes Gata, Palos, and St. Martin, together with Cape Creuse, the eastern point of the Pyrenees.

The ancient subdivisions of Spain are in great measure superseded. They are, however, thrown into a note, together with the more modern and minor districts, as unnecessary to be committed to memory.*

* 1 Galicia.	3 Leon.	Burgos.
Corunna.	Leon.	Valladolid.
Lugo.	Zamora.	Avila.
Orense.	Salamanca.	Segovia.
Ponte Vedras.	4 Old Castile.	Soria.
2 Asturias.	Santander.	Logrono.
Oviedo.	Palencia.	

Spain is traversed by five mountain chains, all running more or less in a direction east and west, and separated by elevated plains.

In the north are the Pyrenees, of which the most notable points, Maledetta and Perdu, on the French frontier, attain an elevation of above 11,000 feet. This chain of mountains is prolonged westward, parallel to the north coast, and Pena de Penaranda, in about longitude 6° W., is little lower.

Further southward are the less elevated chains of the Castilian Mountains, the Sierra Toledo, and the Sierra Morena. The Sierra de Grados, an exceptional point in the first-named, attains 10,000 feet.

The Sierra Nevada, parallel to the Mediterranean, rises in Mulhacen to 11,600 feet, the highest point in Spain, and the Pic de Veleta in the same chain is little lower.

All these ranges are connected by a dorsal ridge toward the east, forming the watershed between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean.

Five considerable rivers flow into the Atlantic, through the basins formed by the above-named mountains:—

The Minho rises between two branches of the Western Pyrenees, and in the lower part of its course forms the boundary between Spain and the north of Portugal.

5 Vascon Gadas.	Tarragona.	Toledo.
Biscay.	9 Valencia.	12 Estremadura.
Guipuscoa.	Castellon.	Caceres.
Alava.	Valencia.	Badajos.
6 Navarre.	Alicante.	13 Andalusia.
Navarre.	10 Murcia.	Huelva.
7 Aragon.	Marcia.	Cadiz.
Saragossa.	Albacete.	Seville.
Huesca.	11 New Castile.	Cordova.
Teruel.	Madrid.	Malaga.
8 Catalonia.	Guadalaxara.	Granada.
Lerida.	Cuenca.	Jaen.
Gerona.	Ciudad Real, or	Almeria.
Barcelona.	La Mancha.	

The Douro rises between the Pyrenees and the Castilian Mountains, flows with a rapid course, and, after forming part of the boundary between Spain and Portugal, enters the sea near Oporto.

The Tagus rises in the mountains of Albarracin, at the eastern end of the Sierra Toledo, enters Portugal, and, bending southward, falls into the sea below Lisbon. Its course may be about 520 miles.

The Guadiana springs from the Sierra Morena, flows westward through Spain, and, bending still more southward than the Tagus, forms part of the boundary between Spain and Portugal, and falls into the sea about 30 miles east of Cape St. Mary.

The Guadalquivir rises in the north-east extremity of the Sierra Nevada, and, flowing by Cordova and Seville, falls into the sea a little north of Cadiz.

None of these rivers are navigable any great distance from the coast, owing to their shallows and rapids. Vessels of 100 tons, however, can ascend the Guadalquivir to Seville.

Upon the Eastern or Mediterranean coast, the Segura, Xucar, and Guadalaviar, are less considerable streams. The Ebro, however, is an important river. It rises near Reynosa, and, flowing to the south-east, forms a delta below Tortosa. Its course is about 450 miles. It is rendered navigable by aid of the canal of Aragon.

The principal places worthy of notice are—

Madrid, the capital, nearly in the centre of the Peninsula.
Pop. 216,000.

North of the Pyrenees are—

St. Sebastian, a strong fortress.

Bilbao, formerly celebrated for its sword blades, and now the chief port of Northern Spain.

Santander, with a good harbour, and rising commerce.

Oviedo, one of the chief places of refuge for Christians during the Moorish supremacy.

Corunna, memorable for the retreat of Sir J. Moore, and for his death under its walls when the British evacuated Spain in 1808. The Spanish Armada sailed from this port.

In the basin of the Douro—

Valladolid. Columbus died here 1506.

Zamora, on the Douro.

Salamanca, on the Tormes. Anciently a great seat of learning, and still in some repute among the Spaniards. Memorable also for the total defeat of the French army by the British under Lord Wellington, 1812.

Segovia, at the foot of the Mountains of Castile.

In the basin of the Tagus—

Toledo, still celebrated for its manufacture of sword blades.

Talavera de la Reyna, memorable for a gallant repulse of the French by Sir Arthur Wellesley, 1809.

Almaraz, where the French forces were defeated by Lord Hill in the same war.

Ciudad Rodrigo, taken by Lord Wellington, 1812.

In the basin of the Guadiana—

Badajos, a strong fortress, captured by the French in 1811, and retaken by the British after a most gallant defence, 1812.

In the basin of the Guadalquivir—

Jaen, a flourishing town under the Moorish domination.

Granada, the ancient seat of the Moorish monarchs. The Alhambra still remains a monument of their magnificence. Granada was taken from them in 1492, a year memorable for the discovery of America.

Cordova, one of the chief cities of the Moors in Spain, and famous for its manufactures in leather. It is on the Guadalquivir.

Seville, the capital of Spain during the Gothic ascendancy, and still one of its most thriving and populous cities.

Xeres, celebrated for the growth of the wine, thence called sherry.

Cadiz, the principal seaport of modern Spain, and strongly fortified. Pop. 54,000.

On the south coast are—

Gibraltar, a strongly fortified rock on the Straits of the same name. This was the first place taken by the Moors on their

entrance into Spain, 711. It was captured by the English in 1704, and has been retained by them since that period.

Malaga, on a fertile plain, celebrated for its wine and raisins.

Cartagena, founded by the Carthaginians.

Murcia, in a broad and fertile vale on the Segura.

Alicante, on the coast.

At the mouth of the Guadalaviar is—

Valencia, a flourishing port, with 65,000 inhabitants, and a university.

In the basin of the Ebro—

Vittoria, where Lord Wellington gained a decisive victory over the French, 1813.

Pampeluna, one of the keys of Spain. It was reduced by Lord Wellington, 1813.

Saragossa, captured by the French after a heroic resistance, 1809.

In the north-east, upon the coast—

Tarragona.

Barcelona, with a population of above 100,000, and considerable trade; it is famous for its nuts and silk handkerchiefs.

The principal Spanish islands are Yviza, Majorca, and Minorca, collectively called the Balearic Islands. Their chief towns are Palma in Majorca, and Port Mahon in Minorca, a frequent rendezvous of the British fleet in the war at the commencement of this century. The climate of Spain, notwithstanding its insular position, is dry. That of the elevated plains is parched in summer, but subject to very severe winds in winter. This part of the country is, therefore, during a great portion of the year, almost a desert. The lower land about the south coast has a most delightful winter climate, but is subject to great heats in summer, though somewhat tempered by sea breezes. Wherever irrigation can be applied, the vegetation is most luxuriant, but the absence of water is very generally felt. It is a remarkable evidence of the dryness

of the climate that, though Spain is a mountainous country, there are scarcely any lakes.

The mineral riches of Spain are very great, comprising lead, silver, copper, quicksilver, black-lead or plumbago, iron, and coal; besides various marbles, lime, sulphur, and soda. All these are much neglected; lead and quicksilver are, however, obtained to some amount.

Wheat, oil, wine, cork, nuts, chesnuts, almonds, and oranges, are among its products.

The horses and mules of Spain are in high repute, and the Merino sheep are valuable for their wool. A good deal of silk and honey is also produced.

The state of agriculture, and of every art and manufacture, is at the lowest ebb.

The subjection of the country to the Romans was succeeded by the dominion of the Goths, who were driven into the north-western provinces by the Moors. The latter invaded the country in 711, and obtained possession of the greater part of it, but were gradually driven back. The result was the establishment of a number of petty Christian principalities, till most of these having merged in Aragon and Castile, Ferdinand of Aragon drove the Moors out of Spain, and united the whole into a single kingdom, 1493. From this period its government has been a monarchy. The religion is Roman Catholic. The discovery of America by Columbus, 1492, opened that immense continent to Spanish colonization. Cuba, however, and Porto Rico, in the West Indies (Pl. XXVI.), are now the only remnants that Spain possesses of the vast empire she once held in the western hemisphere. The Philippines (Pl. XIX.) in the Eastern Asiatic Archipelago, and the Ladrone islands in the division of Polynesia, are also Spanish dependencies.

Portugal lies to the west of Spain, which bounds it on

the north and east. The Atlantic is the western and southern boundary. Its subdivisions are added in a note.*

Its principal capes are : Cape Roca, the most western point of continental Europe ; Cape Espichel, on the opposite shore of the Tagus ; Cape St. Vincent, memorable for the victory of Sir J. Jervis over the Spanish fleet, 1797 ; and Cape St. Mary.

Portugal is much intersected by mountains. The Sierra d'Estrella, terminating in Cape Roca, may be considered as a continuation of the Castilian chain. Its highest point is above 7000 feet. The mountains of Algarve are a prolongation of the Sierra Morena.

The chief Portuguese rivers are the Minho, Douro, Tagus, and Guadiana, already described. They are of little value for the purposes of internal navigation, but form ports at their mouths.

The principal cities are —

Lisbon, the capital, on the Tagus, nearly destroyed by an earthquake, 1755. Pop. 280,000.

Oporto, on the Douro, a considerable seaport, in whose neighbourhood the Oporto or Port wine is produced. The city is memorable for its gallant capture by the British in 1809, under Lord Wellington, who compelled the French to evacuate it. Braganza, giving the title of duke to the kings of Portugal.

Coimbra, celebrated for its university.

Torres Vedras, memorable for the lines of fortification constructed by Lord Wellington for the defence of Lisbon, and forming the impregnable base of his operations.

Bucellas, noted for its wine.

South of the Tagus are —

St. Ubes, or Setubal.

Evora, the third city in the kingdom.

* Minho.
Tras os Montes.
Beira Baixa.

Beira Alta.
Douro.
Estremadura.

Alemtejo
Algarve.

Elvas, on the frontiers of Portugal, opposite to Badajos in Spain, and strongly fortified.

The climate of Portugal is milder than that of Spain. The southern part, however, suffers much from want of water. The products are corn, wine, oil, figs, lemons, oranges, and cork; together with silk and wool. Its agriculture and manufactures are in a backward state. Its roads are scarcely passable, except in the vicinity of the capital.

Portugal fell, with Spain, successively under the power of the Goths and Moors; on the expulsion of the latter, it grew up into an independent kingdom.

Portuguese navigators discovered the Azores, Madeira, and the Cape of Good Hope, and thus opened a way by sea to the East Indies, under the guidance of Vasco de Gama, 1498. The Portuguese colonised Brazil, and held possession of it till 1822, when it declared itself independent. The Government of Portugal is monarchical, the religion Roman Catholic.

Portugal possesses the Azores, the Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands (Pl. XXII.), together with some settlements in Congo, Loango, and Angola, on the west coast of Africa, and Mozambique upon the east. Goa, in the East Indies (Pl. XX.), and Macao, in China (Pl. XIX.), also belong to Portugal.

Sect. 6. SWITZERLAND.

Area, 15,235 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1850, 2,395,178.

East of France is Switzerland (Pl. XIII.), bounded on the north by Germany, on the east by the Tyrol, a province of Austria, and on the south by Lombardy and Sardinia.

It is divided into 22 cantons, whose names are sub-joined.*

Switzerland is traversed near its southern border by two great parallel ranges of the Alps, and on its western frontier by the Jura. The most southerly of the Alpine ranges is the highest. Mont Blanc lies beyond its borders, in Savoy; but Mont Combin, the Matterhorn, and Monte Rosa, all range from 14,000 to 15,000 feet, and even upwards. The northern or Bernese Alps are little inferior to the southern. The Finster-Aarhorn, Jungfrau, Eiger, and Monch, attain from 13,000 to 14,000 feet. At the St. Gothard the ranges unite, and again separate to the eastward. The principal passes over the southern chain are those of the Simplon, Bernardin, and Splugen. At the St. Gothard, both ranges are crossed together. Over the northern range there is no carriage road, but it is crossed by the formidable mule tracks of the Gemmi and Grimsel. The Jura attains between 5000 and 6000 feet, and is a limestone range, with smooth outline. The rivers of Switzerland are the Rhine and the Rhone, which rise at no great distance from each other, on opposite sides of the St. Gothard, and the Aar, an affluent of the Rhine.

The Rhine flows with a turbulent course into Lake Constance, and is precipitated by a fall of 80 feet at Schaffhausen. It forms the eastern and northern boundary of Switzerland.

The Rhone flows between the two ranges of the Alps into the Lake of Geneva, whence it issues, in a clear

* Basle, city.
 ——— county.
 Soleure
 Berne.
 Neuchatel.
 Vaud.
 Geneva.
 Friburg.

Uri.
 Unterwald.
 Luzern.
 Argau.
 Zurich.
 Schaffhausen.
 Thurgau.
 Appenzell.

St. Gall.
 Zug.
 Schwyz.
 Glarus.
 Grisons.
 Tessin.
 Valais.

stream, through the city of Geneva, at its western extremity.

The Aar rises on the northern flank of the Grimsel, and flowing through the Lakes of Brienz and Thun, passes by Berne, and falls into the Rhine opposite Waldshut. It receives the Reuss from the Lake of Lucerne, and the Limmat from the Lake of Zurich.

The lakes of Switzerland are numerous and important. In addition to those of Constance and Geneva, which have a length of between 30 and 40 miles, and a breadth of about 12, the Lakes of Neuchatel, Bienne, Zurich, Wallenstadt, Zug, and Lucerne, are all very considerable. Those of Thun and Brienz have been already noticed, and are each about 10 miles long. The Lago Maggiore belongs rather to Italy; but the Lake Lugano is almost entirely in the canton of Tessin. The scenery of all these lakes is beautiful in the extreme.

The principal places are—

Berne, the capital. Pop. 23,000.

Geneva, noted for its manufacture of watches. Pop. 26,000.

Lausanne, pleasantly situated on the Lake of Geneva.

Morat, on the Lake of Morat, in the canton of Friburg, memorable for the utter defeat of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, by the Swiss, in 1476, which completed the work of his previous defeat, the same year, at Granson on the Lake Neuchatel.

Friburg, remarkable for a suspension bridge of wire cables, longer and higher than that over the Menai.

Lucerne (or Luzern), upon the lake of that name. A little northward is the Lake Sempach, where Leopold II., Archduke of Austria, was defeated and slain by the Swiss, 1386. Near the opposite end of the irregularly shaped Lake of Lucerne is Altdorf, the scene of the early rise of Swiss liberty under William Tell.

Zurich, on the Lake of Zurich.

Schaffhausen, at the falls of the Rhine.

Basle, on the Rhine, which is connected at this point with the

Doubs, and so with the Rhone, by a canal, thus uniting the waters of the German Ocean and the Mediterranean.

The climate of Switzerland, probably owing to its extent of snowy mountains, is colder than the latitude would lead us to expect. Much, however, depends upon the elevation; and the southern side of the great Alpine chain is warmer than the north, both as being sheltered from the north winds, and as having the slope of the ground toward the south, and thus receiving the sun's rays more vertically.

The mineral riches of Switzerland have not been fully explored. Gold has been found in a few situations, iron in the Jura, and salt at Bex.

The vine flourishes about Neuchatel, and the Lake of Geneva. Flax is grown in many places. Little corn is cultivated, the country being generally pastoral. Cattle form the great wealth of Switzerland. Large flocks of goats are kept in the Alpine tracts. Sheep are comparatively neglected.

Watches and jewellery, together with fabrics in cotton and linen, form the chief branches of manufacture. The products of the dairies, and pastoral pursuits, occupy the population largely during the summer.

The west of Switzerland was overrun by the Dukes of Burgundy, and the western cantons retain the French language. The eastern were subject to Austria, and retain the German. In the year 1307, the tyranny of the Austrian governors drove the cantons of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwald into revolt, under William Tell. Most of the other cantons came into the confederation, or were conquered by it during the next 200 years. The government is a republican confederation; but the canton of Neuchatel owns the sovereignty of the King of Prussia.

The religion is Roman Catholic in some cantons, and Protestant in others.

Sect. 7. BELGIUM.

Area, 13,013 E. sq. miles. — Pop. in 1846, 4,335,319.

North of France is Belgium (Pl. XV.), bounded on the north by the German Ocean and Holland, and on the east by the Rhenish provinces of Prussia.

Its subdivisions are referred to in a note.*

Belgium has no mountains. A few undulations toward the east attain about 2000 feet.

The rivers of Belgium are the Maas or Meuse, which rises in France, and flowing by Namur, Liege, and Maas-tricht, enters Holland. It receives the Waal, a branch of the Rhine, near its mouth, and falls into the sea below Rotterdam, after a course of 400 miles.

The Scheldt rises in France, and passing by Valenciennes, enters Belgium, flows by Ghent, and falls into the sea below Antwerp.

The remarkable places are —

Brussels, the capital: its population, including suburbs, exceeds 150,000. About 12 miles south of it is Waterloo, the memorable scene of the final struggle, June 18. 1815, in the war with France, after the return of Napoleon from Elba.

Ostend, the chief port for communication with England.

Bruges, a large commercial city, the seat of lace and other manufactures.

Ghent. Population, 84,000, and formerly even more numerous.

This city gave name to John of Gaunt or Ghent, son of Edward III., who was born there. Its manufactures of cotton and linen are important.

Antwerp, with a magnificent cathedral and flourishing trade. Pop. 79,000.

Malines or Mechlin, celebrated for its lace.

* West Flanders.

East Flanders.

Antwerp.

Limburg.

South Brabant.

Hainault.

Namur.

Liege.

Luxemburg.

Part only, however, of the Duchies of Luxemburg and Limburg belong to Belgium: the remainder to Holland.

Louvain. The expulsion of the weavers from hence, through their revolt against the encroachments of their sovereign, the Duke of Brabant, and the reception of them by Edward III., gave rise to the linen and woollen manufactures of England.

Ramillies, a small village, memorable for the decisive victory of the Duke of Marlborough over the forces of Louis XIV., 1706.

Liege, noted for its hardware and gun manufactures. Pop. 62,000, Namur, in a coal and iron district.

Mons, one of the strongest fortresses in Belgium.

The climate of Belgium has far greater vicissitudes than that of England, but in other respects resembles it. A damp atmosphere prevails.

Its mineral products are coal and iron, which are extensively found in the south-eastern part of the country; copper, lead, and zinc, are also procured.

It has extensive forests, and produces wheat, barley, flax, beet-root, and potatoes.

Its horses are good: cattle, swine, and sheep, especially the two former, are abundant. Considerable quantities of honey and wax are obtained.

The chief manufactures are those of arms, cutlery, woollen, linen, lace, silk, and leather. Sugar is made from beet-root. There are extensive distilleries. Agriculture is pursued with great care and diligence, but chiefly by hand labour, the implements being generally rude.

Belgium was overrun by the Franks on their invasion of France, and formed part of the empire of Charlemagne, about 800 A. D.

The formation of guilds for the mutual protection of commercial bodies began in Flanders. Hence arose free cities, in a country divided among despotic, military, and ecclesiastical princes. The Flemings were occupiers of the coast; the Walloons, who still retain a distinct language, possessed the south-east. The whole country became united under the Dukes of Burgundy about A. D. 1400, and sub-

sequently, passing by marriage under the Austrian emperors, descended in 1519 to Charles V., Emperor of Germany and King of Spain. The people, in considerable numbers, embraced the doctrine of the Reformation; and the attempt to repress it, in 1567, by Philip II. of Spain, and the Duke of Alva, with unheard-of cruelties, drove a large population to the shores of England. A determined resistance to the Spanish Crown was at the same time aroused, but the yoke of Spain was not eventually shaken off till 1709; Belgium then again fell into the hands of Austria. Subsequently to the French revolution of 1789, it was incorporated with France. At the peace of 1815, it was formed, in conjunction with Holland, into the kingdom of the Netherlands, and, by the revolution of 1830, declared itself a free and independent monarchy.

The religion is Roman Catholic, but all forms are tolerated.

Sect. 8. HOLLAND.

Area, 13,598 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1849, 3,242,990.

To the north of Holland is Belgium: bounded on the west and north by the German Ocean, and on the east by Hanover and the Rhenish provinces of Prussia. Part of the Duchy of Luxemburg forms an insulated portion of the kingdom of Holland further south.

The subdivisions are given below.*

The chief cape is the Helder, at the entrance of the Zuider Zee, or Southern Sea, a large gulf formed by an irruption of the ocean in 1272. Off the Helder was

* Groningen.
Friesland.
Drenthe.
Oberysse.

N. Holland.
S. Holland.
Utrecht.
Zealand.

North Brabant.
Guelderland.
Pt. of Limburg.
Pt. of Luxemburg.

fought the action between General Monk and Admiral Van Tromp, in which the latter was killed, 1653. Holland has no mountains, and no inconsiderable portion of its surface is below the sea level, the tides being kept out by dykes. The chief rivers are the Rhine, which will be described hereafter; the Waal and Maas, which have been already mentioned; and the Yssel, a branch of the Rhine, which falls into the Zuider Zee.

The chief places are—

Amsterdam, the capital. Population 211,000; one of the greatest commercial cities in the world.

Kamperdown, a small place north of Amsterdam, off which the Dutch fleet was defeated by Admiral Duncan, 1797.

Haarlem, on the Haarlem-meer, or Lake of Haarlem, which was formed by an inundation; it extended 12 or 14 miles in length, but has been recently drained.

Leyden, celebrated for its university, and for the noble defence it made against the Spaniards, 1574.

The Hague. The residence of the court.

Rotterdam, with a population of 78,000. The birth-place of the illustrious Erasmus, 1467.

Dort, memorable for the Synod of Dort, well known in the Protestant Church for its attempts to suppress Arminianism, 1618.

Utrecht, with a population of 44,000.

Zutphen. In the siege of Zutphen by Prince Maurice, who captured it from the Spaniards, Sir Philip Sydney was killed, 1591.

Maastricht, on the Meuse (or Maas), a strong fortress.

The islands of Holland are chiefly those formed at the mouths of the Scheldt, Maas, and Rhine. Among them Walcheren is memorable for the disastrous expedition of the British, 1809. There is also a chain of small islands off the north coast, of which Texel is the most noteworthy.

The climate of Holland is more damp than that of

England, and its winters are much more severe, the Zuider Zee being sometimes frozen. The evaporation from the low lands contributes both to the dampness and to the cold, and renders ague prevalent. The absence of good fresh water increases the evil.

Holland has no mines, and few forests. It produces barley, wheat, and flax; but especial attention is paid to the products of the dairy and to the rearing of cattle, the rich pastures being very favourable for this purpose.

The distilleries of Holland are extensive. The herring and other fisheries are also important. Woollen and linen fabrics are excellent. A good many hands are employed in pottery. Horticulture is carried to a high pitch; and Dutch bulbs are exported largely to other countries.

The history of Holland coincides with that of Belgium until, in 1567, the Duke of Alva was sent by Philip II. of Spain to crush the spread of the doctrines of the Reformation and the political privileges of the people. His oppressions drove the Dutch into rebellion. The seven united provinces of Holland were declared independent in 1609, and their commerce soon became the greatest in the world. The united provinces were overrun by France after the revolution of 1789, and erected into a kingdom by Napoleon. Its subsequent history has been already mentioned in that of Belgium. The king has a seat in the German Confederation as Duke of Luxemburg. The religion is Calvinistic, but toleration is granted to every form.

The colonies of Holland consist of Java, with part of Sumatra, and the Moluccas, in Australasia (Pl. XXVIII.); some settlements on the coast of Guinea, in Africa (Pl. XXII.); and Dutch Guiana, in South America (Pl. XXVII.); together with Curaçoa, and a few small islands in the West Indies. Part of the United States, as well as the Cape of Good Hope, was colonised by them, but subsequently ceded to the British.

Sect. 9. GERMANY.

Area, 93,293 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 16,665,902.*

East of Holland, Belgium, and France, is Germany (Pl. VIII.). Besides a great portion of the Empire of Austria and the Kingdom of Prussia, which will be more conveniently described hereafter, it comprises four smaller kingdoms, Hanover, Saxony, Bavaria, and Wirtemberg, together with 28 minor states and 4 free cities. The German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, form the northern boundary of this district, Prussia and Austria the eastern, Switzerland and the Tyrol bound it on the south.

The reader is referred to a note for a complete list of the states forming the Confederation: it will be sufficient here to mention only the principal.†

* The extent and population of Germany, including the portions of Austria and Prussia which are included in the Germanic Confederation, may be estimated at 244,634 square miles, and 41,196,500 inhabitants.

Exclusive of Austria and Prussia,	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Hanover contains -	- 14,846	1,773,711
Saxony - - -	- 6,777	1,836,433
Wirtemberg - - -	- 7,658	1,743,827
Bavaria - - -	- 29,637	4,504,874
The smaller States -	- 34,375	6,807,057
	93,293	16,665,902

† Austrian Germany.

Prussian Germany.

Saxony.

Hanover.

Bavaria.

Wirtemberg.

Baden.

Hesse Darmstadt.

Hesse Cassel.

Brunswick.

Oldenburg and Kniphausen.

Mecklenburg Schwerin.

Mecklenburg Strelitz.

Holstein and Sleswick (Pt. of Denmark).

Luxemburg (Pt. of Holland).

Nassau.

Saxe Weimar.

Saxe Coburg Gotha.

Saxe Meiningen.

Saxe Altenburg.

Anhalt Dessau.

Anhalt Bernburg.

Anhalt Kothen.

Schwarzberg Sonderhausen.

Rudolstadt.

In the north, adjoining Holland, is Hanover, formerly subject to the same king with England, but now passed into a separate branch of the royal family. Surrounded by Hanover on all sides but the north, is Oldenburg. North-east of Hanover, the duchy of Holstein gives to the King of Denmark a seat at the Diet; but will be more conveniently described with Denmark. On the Baltic is Mecklenburg Schwerin, with Mecklenburg Strelitz beyond it. South-east of Hanover is Brunswick, having Anhalt to the east. Below Brunswick are Hesse Cassel, and Hesse Darmstadt, with Nassau to the west, and Saxe Coburg Gotha, Meiningen, and Weimar to the east. These, together with several other smaller states, are so intermixed, as not to be easily separable in description. East of these is Saxony. Below Hesse Darmstadt is Baden, lying along the Rhine. East of Baden, Wirtemberg; and east of Wirtemberg, Bavaria. A detached portion of Bavaria is situated on the west bank of the Rhine, bordering on France.

The principal mountains of Germany are the Harz, on the confines of Brunswick; the Erz-gebirge, or Metallic Mountains, between Saxony and Bohemia; the Böhmerwald, between Bohemia and Bavaria; the Black Forest, in Baden; and the Tyrolese Alps, between Bavaria and the Tyrol. The culminating point of the Harz Mountains exceeds 3700 feet. The Black Forest, Böhmerwald, and Erz-gebirge, all attain an elevation of about 5000 feet. The Alps on the Bavarian frontier seldom exceed 9000 feet.

The chief rivers of Germany are the Rhine, Weser, Elbe, and Danube, with their tributaries.

Hohenzollern Hechingen.
Lichtenstein.
Hohenzollern Sigmaringen.
Waldeck.
Reuss, Elder Branch.
Reuss, Younger.
Schaumburg Lippe.

Lippe Detmold.
Hesse Homburg.
Lubeck.
Bremen.
Frankfort.
Hamburg. } Free cities.

The Rhine meets the German frontier at the Lake of Constance. It forms the southern and western boundary of Baden, and receiving the Neckar at Mannheim, and the Mayne at Mayence, traverses the Rhenish provinces of Prussia. Here it receives the Moselle at Coblentz, and passing Cologne (Pl. XV.), turns westward and divides itself into many branches, of which the Waal, Lech, and Yssel are the principal, and empties itself by a diminished stream into the North Sea, below Utrecht and Leyden. Its course is about 760 miles, and it is navigable to Strasburg, and even to Basle.

The Weser rises in Saxe Coburg Gotha, where it is known as the Werra. It receives the Fulda from the west, in Hesse Cassel. The united stream is called the Weser, and flows into the North Sea below Bremen.

The Elbe rises in the east of Bohemia, and receives the Moldau before it enters Saxony. It then flows by Dresden, and, traversing a part of Prussia, divides Hanover from Mecklenburg Schwerin, and forms a noble estuary below Hamburg.

The Danube rises in the Black Forest, and receiving the Lech, the Iser, and the Inn, all important tributaries, from the Tyrol, enters Austria. Its further course will be described hereafter.

The chief places in Germany are —

Bremen, on the Weser, a free city, and place of considerable traffic. Pop. 50,000.

Hamburg, on the Elbe, a free city, the principal commercial town of Germany. Population 148,000. It was nearly destroyed by fire in 1842.

Lubeck. The third of the free cities, communicating by the Trave with the Baltic. Pop. 28,000.

In Hanover —

Hanover, the capital. Pop. 28,000.

Embsen, the principal port, but a third class town.

Osnaburg, whose bishops were powerful princes in the middle ages. The civil governor still bears the ecclesiastical title.
Göttingen, with an university.

In the Central States —

Brunswick, the capital of the duchy.
Cassel, the capital of Electoral Hesse, or Hesse Cassel.
Wisbaden, in the Duchy of Nassau. It is celebrated for its mineral springs.
Darmstadt, the capital of Ducal Hesse, or Hesse Darmstadt.
Mayence or Mentz, one of the strongest fortresses of Germany, always garrisoned by a mixed force of Austrians and Prussians.
Frankfort on the Mayn, a free city, with near 60,000 inhabitants.
Weimar, capital of the duchy. Printing is largely carried on here, and it has many literary institutions. Pop. 12,000.
Jena, memorable for the victory of Napoleon over the Prussians in 1806, by which the army of the latter was utterly destroyed.

In Saxony are —

Dresden, the capital, with a population of near 90,000. The porcelain made in the vicinity is deservedly in high repute. This city is also memorable for the defeat of the allied forces by Napoleon in 1813.
Leipsic, with manufactures in silk and leather, and great annual fairs. Large printing establishments have rendered it the centre of the book trade. Leipsic is memorable for the defeat of Napoleon by the armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, 1813, after a protracted and sanguinary struggle.
Chemnitz, the centre of increasing cotton manufactures.

In Baden are —

Carlsruhe, the capital. Pop. 20,000.
Heidelberg, a university.
Mannheim, on the Rhine.
Baden, a much frequented watering place.

In Wirtemberg are —

Stuttgart, the capital. Pop. 32,000.
Ulm, where the Danube begins to be navigable.

In Bavaria—

Munich, the capital. It possesses some of the finest works of art out of Italy. Pop. 107,000.

Nuremberg, noted for its manufacture of wooden clocks and toys.

Ratisbon, or Regensburg, once a place of much importance, but now fallen into decay.

Hohenlinden, memorable for the defeat of the Austrians by the French and Bavarian army, 1800.

Augsburg. Here the celebrated Confession of Augsburg was drawn up by the Protestant reformers, 1530.

Blenheim, memorable for the victory of the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene over the French, 1704.

The climate of Germany does not greatly vary, though it ranges over more than 6 degrees of latitude. This may be partly accounted for by the more elevated surface of the southern part. The winters are very severe. Even the Rhine and Danube are slightly frozen every year. The summers are, however, warm enough to ripen the vine in Nassau; and southward less rain falls than in England, but about the same amount as in France.

The minerals are important. Gold is found in the Rhine, but in no great quantity. The chief mining districts are in Hanover and Saxony. Lead, silver, copper, iron, bismuth, arsenic, and salt, are found. Coal is procured in Wirtemberg, and also in Hanover, Saxony, and elsewhere.

The chief crops are corn, potatoes, flax, hemp. In the southern States, grapes, madder, and tobacco. The forests of Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and Baden, yield timber, pitch, tar, and turpentine. The cattle, horses, and swine of Mecklenburg, and the sheep of Saxony, are of the best sorts. Large numbers of geese are kept in Mecklenburg, and furnish a considerable supply of quills and down. The manufactures of Germany are linen,—especially the coarser fabrics,—cotton, and woollen, the cloth of Saxony being held in high repute. Mathematical and musical in-

struments are made in Bavaria. Printing forms a considerable source of employment. Wooden toys and clocks are made in Bavaria and Baden. Bavaria is also remarkable for its breweries; Mecklenburg for its distilleries.

The dignity of Emperor of Germany, inherited from Charlemagne, was at first hereditary, but the feudal princes early rendered it elective. Hence the title of Elector, given to the head of some of the German States. Each principality and free town had formerly its own system of coinage, taxation, and tariff, as well as of government. The transport of all merchandise was thus vexatiously impeded, much anarchy prevailed, and the imperial band which held the various states together was feeble and insecure. The French revolution of 1789 swept away this system, and at the peace of 1815 the antient territorial divisions were slightly re-arranged, and the dignity of Emperor of Germany was not renewed. The German States formed a Confederation, and the Emperor of Austria became president of the diet or assembly. The absurd system of import and export duties has now in great measure ceased, most of the States having agreed to an uniform rate of duties, so that merchandise having paid duty at the frontier, may now be conveyed to almost any part of the Confederation.

The Protestant doctrines prevail in the northernmost parts of Germany, the Roman Catholic in the south. Germany was the great scene of the conflicts of the early reformers, and Martin Luther was the most eminent of the leaders of the movement.*

* Martin Luther was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, 1483; summoned to Rome for preaching against indulgences, 1518; threw off the monastic habit, 1524; married next year, and died 1546. His great protector was the Elector of Saxony.

Sect. 10. DENMARK.

Area, 21,856 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,239,077.*

M. G. Plate IX.

Above Germany is Denmark, consisting of the provinces of Holstein, Sleswig, Jutland, and Lauenburg, on the continent, and of Zealand, Funen, Laland, Bornholm, and other islands in the Baltic. Continental Denmark is a peninsula bounded on the west by the German Ocean; on the north by the Skager-rack, an arm of that sea; on the east by the Cattegat and other branches of the Baltic. The Little Belt separates Funen from the mainland: the Great Belt separates it from Zealand, which is again divided from Sweden by the Sound. There are no mountains in Denmark. Its rivers are inconsiderable. The Liim Fiord is an arm of the sea, which occupies a large portion of Jutland, and nearly insulates its northern part.†

The chief cities are —

Copenhagen, the capital, in the island of Zealand. It has a population of 130,000, and numerous distilleries. It was bombarded in 1807 by the British, who took possession of the Danish fleet to prevent its falling into the hands of France.

Elsinore, also in Zealand, a strong fortress, commanding the Sound. It is the scene of Shakspeare's Hamlet.

Flensborg, the principal seaport of Sleswig. It has a good harbour.

	<i>Eng. Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
* Exclusive of Iceland -	- 30,000	57,000
Faroe Isles -	- 459	7,000
	30,459	64,000

† Within the last few years the German Ocean has actually broken into the Liim Fiord, and divided Jutland in two parts. It is possible that the effect may not be permanent.

Kiel, with an university.

Gluckstadt, the capital of Holstein, but now only a small place.

Altona, on the Elbe, built in the hope of attracting some of the commerce of Hamburg to Denmark. Pop. 26 000.

The climate, from the nearly insular position of Denmark is damp; the winters very severe. The Sound is sometimes frozen. The summers, however, in lat. 56° are warmer than our own in lat. 51°.

Denmark has no mines. Corn, flax, hemp, and madder are grown. The horses and cattle are good. The low marsh lands, embanked as in Holland against the sea, afford luxuriant pastures. Agriculture is pursued with energy in Sleswig and Holstein, but attention is chiefly paid to the feeding of cattle and to dairy produce. There are few manufactures, and those chiefly domestic. The fisheries are pursued with some activity.

The Danes, together with the inhabitants of the neighbouring countries, harassed the coasts of Europe from the eighth to the eleventh century, obtained possession of the crown of England, and, under the collective name of Northmen or Normans, founded a kingdom on the coast of France, and even conquered Sicily. In 1397, Margaret, Queen of Denmark and Norway, united those kingdoms to that of Sweden. In 1523, Sweden became independent; but Norway continued under the crown of Denmark till the peace of 1815, when it was united to Sweden. Holstein and Sleswig, though subject to the King of Denmark, are members of the German Confederation.

The Danish religion is Protestant.

The Faroe Isles, north of Scotland (Pl. III.), together with the large island of Iceland, near the Arctic Circle, form part of the dominions of the King of Denmark. Iceland is bare and thinly peopled. Its highest mountain

is Snæfial, which reaches 6860 feet, but the best known is Hecla, a volcano, which reaches 5210 feet. The water volcanoes, or Geysers, which throw up columns of hot water to a great height at uncertain intervals, should not be left unnoticed. The west coast of Greenland (Pl. XXIII.) also belongs to Denmark, as do the Island of St. Thomas (Pl. XXVI.), and a few others in the West Indies; with the Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal (Pl. XX.). Some stations on the coast of Guinea (Pl. XXII.), and a few points upon the coast of Hindostan, which formerly belonged to Denmark, were transferred to the British crown, by purchase, a few years since.

Sect. 11. PRUSSIA.

Area, 107,300 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 16,285,013.*

Prussia (Pl. IX.) consists of two parts. The larger lies along the south coast of the Baltic, and is bounded on the west by Germany, on the east by Russia, and on the south by Austria and Saxony. The smaller lies along both banks of the Rhine, and is bounded on the west by Holland, Belgium, and France, and upon the other sides by Germany. The whole of this division, and the greater part of the former, are included in the German Confederation.

The subdivisions of Prussia are given below.†

The mountains of Prussia are the Harz, on its confines toward Hanover and Brunswick; and the Riesen-gebirge,

* This includes East and West Prussia and Posen, which are not comprehended in the German Confederation. The extent and population of these provinces is 36,384 E. sq. miles, and 3,863,822 inhabitants.

† Saxony.
Brandenburg.
Pomerania.
East Prussia.
West Prussia.

Posen, formerly
part of the
kingdom of
Poland.

Silesia.
Westphalia.
Rhenish Pro-
vinces.

which divide it from the Austrian province of Bohemia, and attain about 5000 feet in height.

The principal rivers are the Elbe, already described, the Oder, Vistula, and Spree.

The Oder rises within the Austrian frontier, and, entering Prussia, flows by Breslau and Frankfort on Oder. Lower down, it receives the Warta, a large river from the east, and enters the Baltic below Stettin, in Pomerania. Its course is about 700 miles.

The Vistula (or Weichsel) rises in the Carpathian Mountains, not far from Cracow, and, flowing by Warsaw and Thorn, enters the Baltic near Dantzic, after a course of 650 miles.

The Spree, rising in Saxony, reaches the Elbe by a circuitous course. Upon it stand Berlin and the fortress of Spandau.

Prussia has many lakes, of which the Spirding See in East Prussia is the principal; and some remarkable inlets from the Baltic, of which the chief are the Curische See near Memel, and the Frische See near Dantzic.

The principal towns in Prussia are :

In the basin of the Elbe—

Berlin, the capital, with a population of 408,500. It has an university, and manufactures in wool, silk, and cast iron. Carriages of a superior description are built here. It is, however, situated in a flat country, and ill drained.

Potsdam, a favourite royal residence, much embellished by Frederick the Great. Pop. 37,000.

Magdeburg, a very strong fortress, and considerable manufacturing town. Pop. 55,800.

Halle, which possesses an university.

On the coast of Pomerania is—

Stralsund, a fortified seaport.

In the basin of the Oder—

Stettin, a seaport with considerable commerce. Pop. 41,000.

Frankfort on Oder, with an university. Pop. 26,600.

Breslau, the capital of Prussian Silesia, with 112,000 inhabitants.

Posen, on the Warta, has great annual fairs. Pop. 40,000.

In the basin of the Vistula, and eastward —

Dantzic, the chief port of Prussia, population 67,000. It has large exports of corn, timber, hemp, and other products.

Königsberg, on the Pregel, has an university. Pop. 75,000.

Tilsit, on the Memel, is memorable for the treaty between France, Russia, and Prussia, 1807.

In the Rhenish provinces are—

Dusseldorf.

Elberfeld, the Manchester of Germany.

Cologne, with 95,000 inhabitants, and a magnificent cathedral.

Aix-la-Chapelle, or Aachen, with celebrated baths. It was the favourite residence and the burial place of Charlemagne.

Bonn, has an university.

Coblentz, a strong fortress, to which Ehrenbreitstein, on the opposite side of the river, forms an almost impregnable citadel.

The island of Rugen, in the Baltic, belongs to Prussia.

The winters of Prussia are rigorous, and of long continuance. The heat of summer is, however, far greater than that of England; but toward the Baltic it is usually damp.

Among the mineral products, iron of excellent quality is found, especially in the Rhenish provinces and Silesia. Coal is also in considerable abundance. Lead, silver, copper, and zinc, are procured in Silesia, Westphalia, and other provinces.

Wheat, potatoes, hemp, and flax are cultivated, and, on the Rhine, wines of the highest quality are produced.

Horses, cattle, and especially sheep, are good.

Linen, woollen, cotton, and hardware, are extensively manufactured, and in the casting of iron the greatest excellence has been attained.

The duchies of Brandenburg and Prussia were united

in 1525, and together with Pomerania were erected into a kingdom in 1700. Frederick the Great came to the throne in 1740. His able policy greatly extended the Prussian dominions, and the partition of Poland in 1795 increased them toward the east. The Rhenish provinces were shortly afterwards acquired. Prussia was overrun by Napoleon in 1806, but on his reverses in Russia it rose up against him with energy, and in the campaign of 1815 contributed no little to his final overthrow.

Freedom is granted to all religious sects. About three-fifths of the population are Protestants, and two-fifths Roman Catholics.

Sect. 12. AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

Area 257,830 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1848, 36,049,467.*

South-east of Prussia is Austria (Plate X.), bounded on the north by Russian Poland; on the west by Bavaria,

* Within the German Confederation:—

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Austria, with the Tyrol, Salzburg, } and Styria	34,703	4,183,905
Bohemia - - - - -	20,203	4,513,074
Moravia and Austrian Silesia -	10,239	2,293,477
	65,145	10,990,456
Without the German Confederation:—		
Illyria - - - - -	10,960	1,293,292
Dalmatia - - - - -	5,067	401,541
Hungary, with Croatia, Slavonia, } and the Banat	104,219	11,654,260
Transylvania - - - - -	21,390	1,996,000
Galicia - - - - -	33,538	4,910,629
Lombardy and Venice - - - - -	17,511	4,803,289
	257,830	36,049,467

Switzerland, and Piedmont; on the south by the Po, the Adriatic, and the Turkish Empire. Turkey and Russia bound it on the east.

The Austrian Empire comprises the Tyrol, Salzburg, Illyria, Styria, Austria Proper, Bohemia, and Moravia, including Austrian Silesia. These are all German both in language and descent. On the coast of the Adriatic is Dalmatia; north of which is Croatia, with Sclavonia and Hungary; eastward, beyond Hungary, are Galicia, Transylvania, and the Banat. A large proportion of the population in all these countries are of Sclavonian origin, and speak the Slovak or Sclavonian language. The central part of Hungary, however, is occupied by the Magyars, distinct in race and language. South of the Alps are Lombardy and Venice, occupied by Italians.

The principal mountains of the Austrian dominions are the Alps, which form two branches in the Tyrol. The Southern or Carnic Alps form the boundary of Italy. Their highest points reach nearly 10,000 feet. They bend round the head of the Gulf of Venice, and, approaching nearer to the coast, separate Dalmatia from Turkey.

The northern Tyrolese chain passes through Salzburg, where some of its summits reach near 12,000 feet, and is continued to the Danube, near Vienna. The line is then resumed a little further east, and the Jablunka Mountains unite it to the Carpathians on the north of Hungary. Some points in the Carpathians reach 8500 feet, and this range is the watershed between the Danube and the Vistula and Dniester. The mountains gradually bend round, encompassing Transylvania, where they are known as the Eastern Carpathians, and attain about the same altitude.

The Riesen-gebirge, Erz-gebirge, and Böhmerwald, which divide Bohemia from Prussia, Saxony, and Bavaria, have been already mentioned. The principal rivers of Austria are the Danube and its affluents. The Elbe, Oder,

Vistula, and Dniester, all rise within its confines, but are not important streams until they have passed beyond them.

The Danube enters the Austrian dominions at its junction with the Inn, and, flowing by Vienna, turns suddenly to the south in Hungary, resuming its easterly direction on the confines of Sclavonia. It there receives the Drave upon its right bank, and soon afterwards the Theiss upon its left, and the Save on its right, at the Turkish frontier. Then, entering Turkey, it divides the provinces of Wallachia (Pl. XVIII.) and Bulgaria, receives the Pruth on the borders of Russia, and enters the Black Sea by many mouths. Of these, several are much impeded by the sediment from its waters. Its course is about 1700 miles. The Neusiedler See, and Balaton Lake, both in Hungary, are large bodies of water; the former nearly equal to the Lake of Constance; the latter, larger than any other lake in the south or west of Europe. Its waters are slightly salt.

The principal towns are —

Vienna, the capital, on the Danube, with a population of 410,000.

Here the celebrated congress was held in 1814–15, to determine the affairs of Europe upon the overthrow of Napoleon.

In Bohemia —

Karlsbad, a much frequented watering place.

Prague, a fortress with a population of 116,000, including the garrison. It was a stronghold of the Protestants, until they were driven out with cruel persecutions by the Emperors of Austria.

In Moravia are —

Olmütz, one of the strongest fortresses of Austria.

Brunn, with considerable woollen manufactures. Pop. 44,000.

Austerlitz, memorable for the victory of Napoleon over the Emperors of Russia and Austria, 1805.

In the Tyrol, Salzburg, and Styria —

Trent, where was held the council in 1545, for the reformation of the Romish Church, and the suppression of Protestantism.

Innsbruck, most picturesquely situated on the Inn.
Salzburg, remarkable also for its romantic scenery.
Graz, with important commerce. Pop. 50,000.

In Illyria —

Trieste, population 70,000, the only seaport of the Austrian Empire, except Venice and Fiume, with a few small places on the coast of the Adriatic.

In Hungary —

Presburg, formerly the capital of Hungary. Pop. 41,000.

Comorn, one of the strongest fortresses in Europe.

Buda or Ofen, with Pesth, on opposite sides of the Danube. Buda is considered the capital of Hungary, but the two places are now connected by a magnificent suspension bridge, and form one city. Total pop. 87,000.

Debreczin, with great fairs frequented by the merchants of the surrounding nations.

In Galicia —

Cracow, forming the capital of an independent district, constituted in 1815, the last remains of the antient kingdom of Poland. It was absorbed into the Austrian Empire in 1846.

Lemberg, the capital of Galicia, with a population of 75,000. Large fairs are held here, frequented by the merchants of Russia, Turkey, and Germany.

In Austrian Italy —

Milan, the capital of Lombardy, population 185,000. It has a magnificent cathedral of white marble, and is the centre of the silk trade of North Italy.

Pavia, on the Ticino. It has an university, and is memorable for the overthrow of the French army, in 1522, by the imperial forces, when Francis I. was made prisoner.

Lodi, memorable for the overthrow of the Austrians by the French under Napoleon, 1796.

Cremona, with considerable traffic in corn, cheese, silk, and flax. It was formerly celebrated for its violins.

Verona. The most important silk manufactures of Italy are here.

Vicenza, also celebrated for its silk manufactures.

Padua, an university, and great medical school. It has also manufactures of silk and wool.

Venice, the capital of the province of the same name, population 110,000. It is built on several low islands, and is intersected

by canals. It was formerly a city of merchant princes, whose governor had the title of Doge, and was the bulwark of Europe against Turkey. The Turks, however, destroyed the Venetian commerce, and its importance has greatly decayed. It is now approached by railway across the lagoon in which it is built.

The coasts of Dalmatia and Croatia are thickly studded with islands, but none of them are of great importance.

The climate of Austria is liable to great vicissitudes. The winters of Hungary are intensely severe. Wine freezes in the casks, though the latitude corresponds with that of France. The summers are proportionably hot, and droughts frequently occur. South of the Alps, and on the coast of the Adriatic, the winters are far milder; but ice forms on the Italian lakes, where the water is shallow, and snow falls. Lombardy and Venice have a moist atmosphere.

The mineral products of Austria are very important. The lead and copper mines of Hungary are rich, and their ores yield a considerable per centage of gold and silver. Coal, salt, and iron, are abundant. The quicksilver mines of Idria are among the richest in the world. The opal, beryl, topaz, garnet, and amethyst, occur in Hungary and Moravia.

The forests are of great extent. Corn, flax, hemp, madder, tobacco, are all grown; and the vine is cultivated to a considerable extent in Hungary and Italy. The olive, maize, and rice, are produced in Lombardy.

The usual domestic animals are kept. Honey and wax abound in all the southern districts, and silkworms are reared in the Italian provinces.

The empire of Austria has grown up since the thirteenth century. The possessions of Charles the Bold, last Duke of Burgundy, including all the east of France and Belgium, passed to the house of Austria by marriage. A little later, Spain, with its vast possessions in America, accrued to it in

the same manner; and in 1521, the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia were added by the same process. Two brothers, Charles V. and Ferdinand I., at this period divided this great empire between them; Charles taking Spain and the Netherlands, together with the Archduchy of Austria, and the title of Emperor of Germany, while Ferdinand became King of Hungary and Bohemia. Transylvania was added in 1700; Galicia, on the dismemberment of Poland, in 1771 and 1795. Lombardy and Venice, though often occupied by Austria in the war with Napoleon, were only finally conceded to it in 1815. The large majority of the people is Roman Catholic. About 6,000,000 belong to the Greek Church, and half that number are Protestants. There are about half a million of Jews.

Sect. 13. ITALY.

Area, 95,612 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 20,450,329.*

Italy (PL XI., XII.) forms a peninsula in the south of Europe, between the Gulfs of Genoa and Venice, and comprises several independent states.

	<i>Eng. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
* Austrian Italy	17,511	4,803,289
Kingdom of Sardinia	29,167	4,650,368
Parma	2,274	496,803
Modena	2,129	513,343
Tuscany	9,177	1,786,875
Papal States	17,494	2,898,115
S. Marino	21	7,600
Two Sicilies	41,906	8,423,316
	119,679	23,579,709
Deduct		
Sardinia (insular)	9,241	524,633
Savoy	4,270	564,137
Sicily	10,556	2,040,610
	24,067	3,129,380
Continental Italy	95,612	20,450,329

In the north, the Alps divide it from Switzerland and the Tyrol. On the east is the Gulf of Venice. It is separated from France, upon the west, by the Alps, and in all other parts is surrounded by the Mediterranean.

It comprises, in the north-east, the Austrian states of Lombardy and Venice. In the north-west, the continental dominions of the King of Sardinia, consisting of Savoy, Piedmont, Nice, and Genoa. East of the Sardinian states is the duchy of Parma; and still eastward, that of Modena. Below this was the small duchy of Lucca, which was annexed to Tuscany upon the death of the late archduchess in 1847. Below Lucca is Tuscany; at the back of which, reaching from the Adriatic to the Mediterranean, are the Papal States, including the little republic of San Marino. The whole of Italy below these (PL. XII.) forms, with the island of Sicily, the kingdom of Naples, frequently spoken of as the Two Sicilies; *i. e.*; continental and insular. The chief capes are Argentaro, Circello, Campanella, Licosa, on the west; Spartivento, Colonna, Capo di Leuca, on the south; and the promontory of Gargano on the east.

The chief mountains in Italy are the Alps, which form the northern boundary, from the Gulf of Genoa to that of Trieste. The districts of Savoy and Nice lie on the western side of the principal ridge, but are entirely occupied by the ramifications of it. Mont Blanc, in the north-western angle of Italy, reaches 15,750 feet, and is the highest point in Europe. Mont Iseran, Monte Viso, and several other points, either exceed 14,000 feet or nearly approach it. The Apennines branch off from the Alps, and, approaching closely to the Gulf of Genoa, sweep inland toward the centre of Italy, traversing it to its southernmost point. The principal summits, Monte Sybilla, Monte Corno, and Monte Velino, all situated

about the middle of Italy, attain an elevation of near 9000 feet or upwards. Of several diverging branches, the principal is that in the kingdom of Naples, which runs eastward, and forms the watershed between the Gulf of Taranto and the Adriatic. The well-known volcano of Vesuvius is an outlying point to the west of the Apennines. It is under 4000 feet in height.

Of the chief rivers in Italy, the Po rises in Monte Viso, and, flowing by Turin, receives the Ticino, Adda, and Mincio, upon the left, and the Tanaro, Secchia, and others, on the right bank, and enters the Adriatic below Venice, separating the Austrian dominions from those of the Pope. Its mouths are much choked up with mud. In many parts its bed is raised above the level of the surrounding country, and inundations are only prevented by artificial banks.

The Adige rises in the Tyrol, and flows into the Gulf of Venice north of the Po.

The Arno rises in the Apennines, and passing through Florence, falls into the sea a little below Pisa.

The Tiber rises a little below the Arno, and, flowing southward through Rome, falls into the sea at Ostia.

The Garigliano and Volturno are inconsiderable rivers in the kingdom of Naples, and will be mentioned, together with other streams of classical importance, in another part of this work.

Italy contains several important lakes. In the north is the Lago Maggiore, and east of it the Lakes of Como and Garda, each about thirty-five miles long. West of the Lago Maggiore is the Lake of Orta, and east of it that of Lugano, remarkable for their picturesque beauty. In the Papal States are the Lakes of Perugia, Bolsena, and Bracciano; and in the kingdom of Naples, near its northern frontier, the Lake Celano, or Fucino.

The chief places in Austrian Italy have been already noticed. In the Sardinian States are —

Turin, on the Po, the capital of the King of Sardinia's continental dominions. Population 124,000.

Nice, sheltered from the north winds, and remarkable for its mild climate.

Genoa. Population 115,000. This city was formerly the capital of a republic, which contested with Pisa and Venice the empire of the Mediterranean. Its manufactures of silk and velvet are still celebrated.

Alessandria, near to which is Marengo, memorable for the victory of Napoleon over the Austrians, 1800.

In Parma —

Parma, the capital. Pop. 41,000.

Piacenza, a decayed town, with some silk manufactures.

In Modena —

Modena, the capital. Pop. 27,400.

Carrara, noted for its quarries of the finest white marble.

In Tuscany —

Florence, the capital. Population 98,000. It contains many of the finest works of antient and modern art in Italy.

Lucca, capital of the duchy of Lucca, now added to Tuscany.

Pisa, once a powerful rival of Genoa, but now a second rate city, remarkable for the leaning tower which forms the belfry of its cathedral. Pop. 22,000.

Leghorn, or Livorno, has succeeded to the commercial importance of Pisa. It has 80,000 inhabitants, and is the chief port of Tuscany.

In the Papal States —

Rome, the capital. Population 180,000. The seat of the Papacy.

Its noble relics of antiquity, its splendid collections of sculpture and paintings, its unrivalled cathedral of St. Peter, combine to render it a city of surpassing interest.

Ferrara, remarkable for the imprisonment of Tasso.

Bologna. Population 70,000. The principal city in the Papal States lying east of the Apennines.

Ancona, the chief port of Rome, on the Adriatic. Pop. 36,000.
Perugia, a city with more activity than most of the Italian towns.
Civita Vecchia, the chief port of Rome on the Mediterranean.

In the Kingdom of Naples are—

Naples, a large and populous city, with 400,000 inhabitants, beautifully situated on the bay of the same name. Here the remains excavated at Pompeii and Herculaneum have been deposited.

Capua, a strong fortress, guarding the approach to Naples.

Taranto, on the Gulf of Taranto, the chief city of south-eastern Italy.

Reggio, on the Straits of Messina.

The islands of Italy are important. Below Genoa is Corsica, belonging to France; and separated from it by the Straits of Bonifacio is Sardinia. It is traversed by a mountain chain, whose highest point exceeds 5000 feet. The capital, Cagliari, is at the southern extremity.

Off the coast of Tuscany are several small islands, of which the chief is Elba, the place of exile of Napoleon in 1815.

North of the Bay of Naples is Ischia, in which is Mount Epomeo, a volcano, now dormant; and south of it Capri, celebrated for its wines.

At the south-western extremity of Italy is Sicily, a large island, traversed from west to east by the Madonian Mountains. Its most remarkable mountain, however, is Etna, outlying from the above chain, an active volcano, 10,874 feet in height, and nearly 180 miles in circumference. Its crater is never less than three, and often six miles round. That of Vesuvius seldom much exceeds half a mile.

The principal places in Sicily are—

Palermo, the capital. Population estimated at 182,000.

Messina, with an excellent harbour, and 84,000 inhabitants.

Catania, at the foot of Etna. It has often suffered from eruptions, but is still a port of some consideration.

Marsala, the seat of a considerable trade in wine.

Above Sicily are the Lipari Isles, of which Stromboli, containing an active volcano, is the principal.

South of Sicily is the small but celebrated island of Malta, belonging to the British; its capital, Valetta, has a noble harbour, and is almost impregnable.

The climate of Italy is delightful. The amount of rain is not great, notwithstanding the insular position of the country. The higher Apennines are covered with snow during the greater part of the year, and in Lombardy the winters are colder than in England; but snow and ice are rarely seen south of the Apennines, and scarcely can be said to occur south of Naples. The summer heats are tempered by the vicinity of the sea, and the only drawback to its salubrity consists in the malaria arising from its marshes. This is so great as to render the districts about Terracina, and some parts of the Tuscan coast, and the mouths of the Po, scarcely habitable in the early autumn.

Italy produces iron; that of Elba is still worked, and is excellent. It also yields copper and sulphur, the latter from the volcanic districts. Salt is found abundantly, and excellent marble.

Maize, corn, olives, vines, rice, and flax, are cultivated, and mulberries are extensively grown for the silkworms. The leaves are readily eaten by cattle.

The oxen are generally large and handsome. The sheep of the Apennines yield excellent wool.

The chief manufactures are silk and woollen fabrics. Cheese, wine, oil, macaroni, and articles of jewellery and sculpture, the straw hats of Tuscany, the mosaic work

of Florence and Rome, the cameos of Rome, and the coral work of Genoa, Rome, and Naples, are in high repute.

After the fall of the Roman empire, Italy became split up into a number of petty states and free cities, of which Venice, Pisa, Genoa, and Milan, were among the principal. The internal dissensions of these states led to the introduction of foreign influence, and Italy became alternately the prey of Germany, Spain, and France. At the epoch of the French revolution, all the existing institutions were swept away. The whole north of Italy, as far as Rome, was united into one kingdom under French laws, and the south formed the kingdom of Naples, under the sovereignty of a French general. At the Congress of 1814, at Vienna, the present partition of Italy was made, but it is very doubtful whether it is likely to be permanent.

The governments are all, with the exception of Sardinia, almost despotic. The Pope is temporal monarch of the Papal States, and, as ecclesiastical head of the Roman Catholic Church, exercises considerable influence over the other powers of Italy.

The state of education is generally backward. The religion, with the exception of some of the vallies of Piedmont, is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 14. SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

		<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Sweden	- -	170,096	3,316,536
Norway	- -	122,008	1,328,471
		292,104	4,645,007

Returning to the north-west of Europe, between the Atlantic and the Baltic (PL XVII.), are Sweden and Norway.

Norway lies along the Atlantic, which bounds it on the west. The Arctic Ocean forms its northern limit. The river Tana separates it from Russia, and the Norwegian Alps divide it from Sweden on the east. The Skager-rack, a broad arm of the German Ocean, separates it from Denmark. East of Norway is Sweden, bounded by the Tornea, the Gulf of Bothnia, and the Baltic on the east, and by Norway and the Cattegat on the west. The northern part of both Norway and Sweden, and of the adjacent districts of Russia, is Lapland, occupied by a semi-barbarous race of Asiatic origin, distinct from the Finns. Lapland is not a political division of the country, but is included in Swedish Pitea and Russian Finland.

The subdivisions are given in a note.*

The chief capes are the North Cape, in the Island of

* In Sweden —	Upsala.	Gottenborg.
1. Nordland.	Stockholm.	Wennergö.
Pitea.	Nyköping.	Mariestad.
Umeå.	3. Gothland.	In Norway —
Hernösand.	Linköping.	Finmark.
Ostersund.	Kalmar.	Norrland.
Gefle.	Jonköping.	Drontheim.
2. Sweden Proper.	Wexio.	Bergenhuus.
Falu.	Carlskrona.	Aggerhuus.
Carlskrona.	Christianskrona.	Christiansand.
Örebro.	Malmö.	
Westerås.	Halmstad.	

Mageröe, the northernmost point of Europe; and the Naze, or Lindesnaes, the south extremity of Norway.

The principal mountains are the Norwegian Alps, which form a range of about 1000 miles, parallel to the Atlantic. Sneehatten, the highest, is 8120 feet above the sea.

The chief rivers in Sweden are the Tornea, which rises from a lake of the same name, and enters the Gulf of Bothnia at its northern extremity. Its course may be 350 miles. The Dahl rises in the Norwegian Alps, and falls into the Gulf of Bothnia, a little north of the Island of Aland.

The rivers of Norway are inconsiderable, and abound in cataracts and shoals. The principal is the Glommen, which springs from Lake Oresund, and falls into the Skager-rack at Frederickstadt, below Christiania. The lakes of Sweden are numerous. The principal are the Wenern Lake, about 80 miles long, and 35 broad, one of the largest in Europe; the Wetteren Lake, about 80 long by 16; the Hielmar Lake, about half that length, and narrow. It communicates with the Maelar Lake by a canal. The Maelar Lake is rather an estuary than a lake, and communicates with the sea near Stockholm.

The lakes of Norway are less important, but the whole coast is indented by narrow gulfs or fiords, which penetrate deeply into the mountains. The chief are the Varanger Fiord, on the confines of Russia; and the Drontheim, Hardanger, and Bukke Fiords on the west coast.

The chief towns in Sweden are—

Stockholm, the capital. Population 84,000. The principal port and seat of manufactures.

Upsala, the former capital, still celebrated for its university; but now only a small place.

Norkoping, has a few iron forges, and some fisheries.

Carlsrona, the chief arsenal.

Gottenborg, the largest city in Sweden, except Stockholm. Pop 30,000.

In Norway are—

Christiania, the capital of Norway. Population 26,000.

Bergen,

Drontheim, or

Tronyem,

} At different times the capital.

Several islands in the Baltic belong to Sweden, of which the chief are Gottland and Oland. The whole coast of Norway is fringed with islands, of which the Loffoden Isles form the most considerable group.

The climate of Sweden and Norway is severe, but much less so than the latitude would lead us to expect, and far less so than the corresponding latitude in Siberia. It will be seen, by reference to the Physical Map (Pl. II.), that the isothermal lines ascend further north at this point than at any other in the world. This is partly owing to the gulf stream, which strikes the north of Norway, bringing a modified climate; partly to the prevailing winds blowing from the ocean; and partly to the ocean currents, which bring the polar ice down Baffin's Bay on to the coast of Labrador and East Greenland, but carry it away from Norway.

The chief product of Sweden and Norway is iron, which is abundant, and of excellent quality. Copper is also obtained. Timber is abundant, and valuable; and pitch, resin, and turpentine, are procured in considerable quantities. Cattle are abundant in the southern districts. Sheep suffer from the winter. Reindeer are the most valuable domestic animals in the north.

The chief manufactures are connected with the mines and forests. Agriculture and domestic woollen manufacture also employ many hands. The fisheries are pursued with some enterprise. Distilleries are very numerous, but for the most part small.

Sweden and Norway seem to have been peopled by the Finns, and overrun by the Goths. Norway became united

to the crown of Denmark by descent in 1387, and Sweden was shortly afterwards united to the same kingdom. Sweden, however, threw off the Danish yoke in 1523, under Gustavus Vasa. The victories of Charles XII. in the early part of the eighteenth century extended the power of Sweden to the first rank among European nations. His overthrow by the Russians at the battle of Pultava destroyed the Swedish ascendancy. At the Congress of Vienna, 1814, Norway was detached from Denmark and united to Sweden, and has since continued to be under the same crown. The government is a limited monarchy. The religion of Sweden and Norway is Lutheran. Toleration is granted to all sects, but there are scarcely 5000 persons who differ from the established church.

The island of St. Bartholomew, in the West Indies (Pl. XXVI.), belongs to Sweden.

Sect. 15. RUSSIA.

Area, 2,100,286 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 60,362,315.

East of the Baltic is the vast empire of Russia in Europe (Pl. XVI.), bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the west, the rivers Tana and Tornea, and the Baltic, separate it from Sweden; below the Baltic it is bounded by Prussia, Austria, and European Turkey; the Black Sea and Caucasus form its southern boundary. The Trans-caucasian provinces belonging rather to Asia, the Caspian, the river Ural, and the Uralian Mountains, form the generally received limit toward the east.

The principal capes are Kanin Nos, on the Island of Kaninska and Cape Ruskoi, in the Arctic Ocean; Cape Cherson, in the Black Sea; and Cape Apsheron, in the Caspian.

The Bieloe More, or White Sea, the Gulf of Finland, and the Sea of Azov, are the chief indentations in the coast.

The subdivisions of Russia are given below.*

The mountains of Russia are the Uralian chain, which runs from north to south for 1200 miles, dividing Europe from Asia. Its highest points reach from 5000 to 6000 feet. The Caucasian range stretches from the Black Sea to the Caspian, but is considered rather to belong to Asia. Elbrouz reaches 18,493 feet, and Mt. Kasbek is little lower. The Valdai Hills do not exceed 1200 feet, and do not even form a watershed; the rivers from their eastern declivity running into three distinct seas, the Baltic, the Black Sea, and the Caspian.

The rivers of Russia, which fall into the Arctic Sea, are the Onega, Dwina, and Petchora. The Neva, Duna, and Memel fall into the Baltic. The Pruth, Dniester, Dnieper, and Don, discharge their waters into the Black Sea, and the Volga and Ural into the Caspian.

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| *1. Northern Pro- | Kaluga. | Kiev. |
| vinces. | Tula. | Tchernigov |
| Archangel. | Orel. | Pultava. |
| Olonetz. | Koursk. | Kharkov. |
| Vologda. | Riazan. | Voronej. |
| 2. Finland. | Tambov. | Don Cossacks. |
| Uleaborg. | 4. Baltic Provinces. | 9. New Russia. |
| Vasa. | Esthonia. | Ekaterinoslav. |
| Abo. | Livonia. | Taurida. |
| Tavastehuus. | Courland. | Cherson. |
| Kymenegard. | 5. Lithuania. | Bessarabia. |
| Kuopio. | Wilna. | 10. Oural. |
| Viborg. | Grodno. | Perm. |
| 3. Great Russia. | Bialystok. | Viatka. |
| Petersburg. | 6. Poland. | Orenburg. |
| Novgorod. | Poland. | 11. Volga and Cas- |
| Pskov. | 7. White Russia. | pian. |
| Smolensk. | Witepsk. | Kazan. |
| Tver. | Minsk. | Simbirsk. |
| Jaroslavl. | Moghilev. | Penza. |
| Kostroma. | 8. Little Russia. | Saratov. |
| Nijni Novgorod. | Volhynia. | Astrakhan. |
| Vladimir. | Podolia. | Caucasus. |
| Moscow. | | |

The Onega rises south-east of Lake Onega, and falls into the gulf of the same name in the White Sea, after a course of 450 miles.

The Dwina is formed by the confluence of the Souchona and Vichegda. Taking the former for the principal stream, it rises west of Vologda, and communicates by canal with the Volga and Caspian in one direction, and with the Lake Onega and so with Lake Ladoga and the Baltic in another, thus affording great facilities for internal communication. It falls into the White Sea near Archangel.

The Petchora rises in the Ural Mountains, and flows into the Arctic Ocean about 15° north-east of Archangel.

The Neva is a stream connecting Lake Ladoga with the Gulf of Finland. Its course is only 35 miles, but it is ennobled by flowing through the capital.

The Duna, or Southern Dwina, rises in a lake of the same name, in the Government of Tver, and flows into the Gulf of Riga in the Baltic.

The Memel, or Niemen, rises in the province of Minsk, and flows into the Baltic at Memel, in Prussia.

Amongst the rivers that belong to the basin of the Black Sea we may enumerate the Pruth, which joins the Danube a little above its delta, and forms the boundary of Russia and Turkey.

The Dniester rises on the confines of Austrian Galicia, and falls into the Black Sea at Akerman.

The Dnieper rises in the borders of Tver and Smolensk, receives the Beresina and Pripet from the west, and falls into the Black Sea near Cherson, after a course of 1200 miles. The Beresina is memorable for the disastrous passage of its waters by the French army in their fatal retreat from Moscow, 1812: it is united by a canal to the Duna, thus affording internal communication between the Baltic and the Black Sea.

The Don has its source in the Government of Tula, and falls into the Sea of Azov at the town of that name. Its mouth is much choked with sand.

The greatest river in Russia, and indeed in all Europe, is the Volga, which rises near Oshtashkof in the Valdai Hills, and receives the Kama, itself a great river, in lat. 55°. It then flows south-westward to Tzaritzin, where it is only 36 miles from the Don, and, turning suddenly to the east, falls into the Caspian below Astrakhan. Its course is 2300 miles.

The Ural rises in the southern branches of the Uralian Mountains, and falls into the north end of the Caspian, constituting, during the whole of its course, the boundary between Europe and Asia.

Russia contains many considerable lakes. That of Ladoga is the largest in Europe. Lake Onega is little inferior. These may be considered as marking a line of depression between the Gulf of Finland and the White Sea. The whole of Finland is intersected by lakes, of which Lake Saima is the most considerable. Lakes Enara and Imandra, in Russian Lapland, are also of large area; and Lake Tchudskoe, south of the Gulf of Finland, is at least five times the size of the Lake of Geneva.

The chief places in Russia are—

Petersburg, the capital, on the Neva, founded by Peter the Great in 1703, and containing 500,000 inhabitants. It is the great emporium of the commerce of Russia.

On the White Sea is—

Archangel. It has a considerable commerce, notwithstanding its unfavourable situation, but the Dwina affords it great means of internal traffic. Pop. 24,500.

On the Baltic are—

Abo, at the junction of the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. It was formerly the capital of Finland, but Frederickshamm is now fast usurping its place.

Cronstadt, strongly fortified, the port of Petersburg, and the principal station of the Russian navy. Pop. 40,000.

Revel, a station of the Russian fleet, in the Gulf of Finland.
 Riga, strongly fortified, and a place of great commercial importance. Pop. 50,000.

West of the Duna and Dnieper are—

Wilna, on the Memel or Niemen, a place of considerable trade.
 Pop. 26,000.

Warsaw, formerly the capital of the kingdom of Poland, and still the residence of the Russian governor. It has 166,000 inhabitants.

Kiev, the most ancient seat of Christianity in Russia.

Kherson, on the Black Sea. Its importance is somewhat decayed from the increasing difficulty of navigating the mouth of the Dnieper.

Odessa, founded in 1792, and already possessing 70,000 inhabitants.

It is the principal port of Russia on the Black Sea.

Ismail, on the Danube, strongly fortified.

Eastward of the above, but westward of the Volga, are—

Novgorod, formerly called the Great, from being the most important and populous city in Russia. It is now much decayed.

Nijni Novgorod, on the Volga. It is the station of the greatest of the Russian fairs, where sometimes 200,000 persons are collected, and the products of China, Siberia, Germany, Turkey, and Persia, are exchanged.

Moscow, the ancient capital of Russia. It has a population of 380,000. It was burnt by its inhabitants on the approach of the French in 1812, that it might not afford an asylum to the invaders, but has been rebuilt and improved.

Borodino, west of Moscow, memorable for the sanguinary conflict between the French and Russians, during the advance of the former upon Moscow.

Kaluga, where sailcloth and other manufactures are carried on.

Tula, notable for its manufactures of arms, hardware, and cutlery.

Pultava, memorable for the victory of Peter the Great over Charles XII of Sweden, 1709, by which the independence of Russia was secured.

Azov, giving name to the Sea of Azov; but the decreasing depth of the harbour has deprived the city of its importance.

Sevastopol, a strong fortress in the Crimea.

Astrakhan, on the Caspian, with extensive trade. Pop. 45,700.

A little above the junction of the Volga with the Kama is—

Kazan, the seat of a recently erected university, and of sailcloth manufactures. Pop. 48,000.

The chief islands off the coast of Russia are those of Nova Zembla, Vaigatch, Kolgouev, and Kaninska, in the Arctic Ocean; the islands of Aland in the Baltic, and Oesel and Dago at the entrance of the Gulf of Riga.

The Crimea is a peninsula united to the mainland by the Isthmus of Perekop, but elsewhere surrounded by the Black Sea, the Sea of Azov, and the Straits of Enikale.

The great extent of European Russia gives it a considerable range of climate, and the Russian winter is proverbially cold. From Petersburg northward, the rivers are all frozen for above six months; and even at Astrakhan, the Volga is frequently frozen for a long period. The Sea of Azov is covered with ice every year, notwithstanding that it is in the latitude of Lyons. The summers are, however, exceedingly hot in the south; and, even at Petersburg, as warm as those of Paris, but more uncertain.

The Ural Mountains yield gold, platinum, copper, and iron; but the precious metals lie chiefly on the eastern or Asiatic side. Iron abounds also in the Valdai and the Caucasus; salt, in the Crimea and eastward of the Volga. The vast forests of central Russia yield a great amount of timber, resin, pitch, turpentine, and similar products. Hemp, flax, and grain, are largely produced. Numerous herds of cattle furnish tallow, hides, and leather — the latter is in high esteem, — and various wild animals supply valuable fur. The southern provinces furnish excellent horses.

The nucleus of the Russian empire consisted of the country from Moscow and the Valdai Hills, southward to Kiev and Kharkov. The whole was overrun by the Tartars in 1237, and was held by them for 250 years. In about 1650, White Russia and Little Russia were wrested from Poland, and the Cossacks were brought into subjection. In 1696, Peter the Great came to the throne, and greatly extended the conquests and civilisation of Russia. About seventy years later, Catherine II. extended the

empire to nearly its present limits; and the addition of Poland and the provinces on either side of the Caucasus has completed the work.

The religion of Russia is that of the Greek Church, so called from the Christians of the Greek or Eastern division of the Roman Empire. It differs from the Romish or Western Church in many unimportant points of ceremony and ritual, but in few important doctrines, and retains most of the Romish corruptions. The Emperor of Russia is at the head of ecclesiastic and civil affairs, and exercises an almost unlimited power.

Besides the Trans-caucasian provinces, and Siberia, comprising the whole north of Asia, Russia possesses an extensive district in the north-west of N. America; but has no colonies in the tropical districts of the world.

Sect. 16. TURKEY.

Area, 189,920 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 15,000,000.*

Below Russia and Austria is Turkey (Pl. XVIII.), bounded on the north by the Save, Danube, and Eastern Carpathian Mountains; on the east, by the Pruth and the Black Sea; on the south, by the Sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, and a line drawn from the Gulf of Volo to the Gulf of Arta. The western boundary is the Gulf of Venice, and the Dalmatian provinces of Austria.

The channel of Constantinople unites the Sea of Marmora to the Black Sea. The Dardanelles unite it to the Archipelago.

The subdivisions of Turkey are added below.†

* The amount of the population of Turkey is very uncertain, the estimates varying between eight and a half millions and the number given above.

† Moldavia and Wallachia.	{	North of the Danube, nominally subject to Turkey, but in great measure independent, except of the influence and control of Russia.
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The chief mountains are the Eastern Carpathians, already mentioned; the Dinaric Alps, which divide Bosnia from Herzegovina, Monte Negro, and Albania. Their highest points attain 9500 feet. The chain then turns eastward, and extends, under the name of the Balkhan, to the Black Sea. Its principal heights rarely attain 8000 feet. A southern branch is thrown off, dividing Albania from Roumelia; a few of its summits exceed 8000 feet. This chain forms the watershed between the Adriatic and the Archipelago, as the Balkhan does between the Archipelago and the Danube. The Despoto Dag branches from the Balkhan, and intersects the province of Roumelia.

The chief rivers are the Danube, Save, and Pruth, already described. The Morava, a tributary to the Danube, rises in Servia. The Maritza and Vardar, both of which rise in the Balkhan, flow into the Archipelago.

The Lake Ochrida, in Albania, is the most important lake.

The chief places in Turkey are —

Constantinople, the capital, on the channel of Constantinople. It has 500,000 inhabitants, and was formerly the residence of the Greek emperors.

In Moldavia are —

Jassy, formerly a large and strong fortress. Its walls are now destroyed. Pop. 40,000.

Galatz, on the Danube, a considerable port for the exportation of grain and other products.

Croatia.

Bosnia.

Servia.

Bulgaria.

Herzegovina. } Owing nominal subjection to Turkey, but in
 Monte Negro. } fact independent.

Albania.

Roumelia.

Trikhala (or Thessaly).

In Wallachia —

Bukharest, capital of the province, with 80,000 inhabitants.

In Bosnia —

Bosna Serai, situated near important iron mines. Pop. 70,000.

In Servia —

Belgrade, formerly a frequent object of contention between the Turks and Austrians. Its importance has now declined. Pop. 30,000.

In Bulgaria —

Rutschuk, on the Danube.

Silistria, a strong fortress, on the Danube.

Sophia, with considerable manufactures in silk and leather. Pop. 46,000.

Shumla, a strong fortress. Pop. 20,000.

In Roumelia —

Adrianople, with a population of 100,000. The capital of the Turks in Europe, previous to the capture of Constantinople.

Salonika, with considerable traffic, and more thriving than most places under Turkish government. Pop. 70,000.

The Islands belonging to Turkey in Europe are, Thasos and Lemnos, in the Archipelago, and the great island of Candia or Crete, which will be noticed more particularly in the latter part of this work. The climate of Turkey has great vicissitudes. The winters, in the northern provinces, are intensely severe. The Danube is frozen over, although the latitude is that of Genoa and Toulouse. The south is somewhat milder. The summers are excessively hot throughout the country. Hence, the low moist grounds about the Danube are subject to fever, especially towards the mouth of the river.

The products of Turkey are iron and lead, in Bosnia.

Wheat, maize, tobacco, and mulberries, are grown in considerable abundance; and the vine in those provinces where a Christian population prevails.

The silkworm supplies occupation for a good many hands; and large herds of swine in the north-western provinces, and of cattle in the north-eastern, furnish bristles, hides, tallow, and leather.

Agriculture and all manufactures are in the lowest state.

Turkey was occupied by the Greek or Western Empire till its decay. In 1338, the Turks first crossed to Europe; in 1453, Constantinople was taken, and the last remnant of the Greek Empire destroyed. The Turkish conquests spread over Hungary and Poland, till, in 1570, the first great check was given to their power by the Venetians, and about 100 years afterwards the tide of invasion was rolled back from Austria, and confined within its present limits. Greece was declared independent in 1827; and the integrity of the Turkish empire is now only maintained by the mutual jealousies of the great European powers.

The religion of the Turks is Mahometan, a form of religion engrafted on the Jewish and Christian dispensations by the impostor Mahomet, who was born A. D. 571, at Mecca, in Arabia, and died 632. The Mahometans acknowledge the divine mission of Moses and of Christ, but maintain that they were ineffectual to convert mankind, and that none but faithful Mussulmans or Mahometans will be entitled to future happiness. The doctrines of Mahomet are to be found in the Koran, which may be called the Mahometan bible. The Hegira, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca, A. D. 622, is the epoch from which the Mahometans date their years.

The districts of Roumelia and Trikhala are chiefly peopled by Mahometans. Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia, together with Herzegovina and Monte Negro, belong to the Greek Church. Bosnia and Croatia have a mixed population.

The government is in the hands of the Grand Signor, whose will is law. He is, however, liable to be deposed

and put to death if he does not govern according to the Koran.

A large district in Asia belongs to Turkey. It also retains a nominal sovereignty over the coasts of Africa in the Mediterranean, with the exception of Algiers, but has no effective power in those regions.

Sect. 17. GREECE.

Area, 18,244 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 688,626.

Below Turkey is Greece (Pl. XVIII.), surrounded on all sides except the north by the Mediterranean and Archipelago. It is divided into two parts by the Gulfs of Lepanto and Egina. The northern is Livadia, the southern the Morea.

Greece is a mountainous country; its culminating points reaching 7000 or even 8000 feet. Its chief mountains will be described hereafter, together with such streams as are most worthy of notice. From its insular position it has no great rivers. Its principal lake is that of Topolias, in Livadia.

The chief places in Greece are—

Athens, the capital. It has about 27,000 inhabitants.

Corinth, on the isthmus of that name.

Lepanto, a small place on the Gulf of Lepanto, memorable for the great victory of the Venetians over the Turks, 1570, the first great check to their career of conquest.

Tripolitza, in the Morea.

Navarino, memorable for the destruction of the Turkish fleet by those of England, France, and Russia, 1827.

Many islands in the Archipelago belong to Greece. Among the chief are Negropont, together with the Spo-

rades, Cyclades, and others, to be described in the account of antient Greece.

Enjoying the latitude of Southern Spain and Italy, the climate of Greece has greater vicissitudes than either. The winters, though short, are severe; snow lies upon the plains. The summers are proportionately hot.

The chief products are vines, including the small species known to us as currants, which derive their name from the Gulf of Corinth, on whose shores they grow. Figs, olives, citrons, and other fruits, are produced, as are also cotton, indigo, tobacco, and the mulberry, from which the Morea derives its name.

The cochineal insect and silkworms are reared in great numbers, and much honey is procured, as in antient times. Leeches form an article of commerce. The cattle are not very numerous, but sheep and goats are very generally kept.

Manufactures are confined to a few silk and cotton looms and some tanneries; but a good deal of traffic is carried on, and seems, with the stability of the government, likely to increase.

The government is a monarchy; the religion is that of the Greek Church. The King of Greece is the head of the church in Greece. There is, however, full toleration for all forms.

We must not omit to mention the Ionian Islands, off the west coast of Greece, of which Corfu, Santa Maura, Cephalonia, Zante, and Cerigo, are the chief. These form an independent republic under the protection of Great Britain, which appoints a commissioner to represent the British crown. The chief towns are Corfu and Zante.

The products are the same as those of Greece; the religion that of the Greek Church.

These islands were a frequent object of contention between the Turks and Venetians, and were ultimately brought into the possession of the latter. On the over-

throw of Venice by the events subsequent to the French revolution they were seized upon by France, and, after some vicissitudes, were erected into a republic under the protection of Great Britain, in 1814.

A SUMMARY OF THE EXTENT AND POPULATION OF THE DIFFERENT STATES OF EUROPE.

<i>Name.</i>		<i>Extent in British Sq. Miles.*</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Inhab. to each Sq. Mile, omitting Fractions.</i>
British Empire	England - -	50,922	16,921,888	332
	Wales - -	7,398	1,005,721	136
		58,320	17,927,609	307
	Scotland - -	29,744	2,888,742	97
	Ireland - -	32,192	6,515,794	202
		120,256	27,332,145	227
France - -	-	203,736	35,400,486	173
Holland - -	-	13,598	3,242,990	238
Belgium - -	-	13,013	4,335,319	333
Saxony - -	-	6,777	1,836,433	270
Hanover - -	-	14,346	1,773,711	119
Bavaria - -	-	29,637	4,504,874	152
Wurtemberg - -	-	7,658	1,743,827	227
Smaller German States - -	-	34,375	6,807,057	198
Switzerland - -	-	15,235	2,395,178	157
Austria, including Lombardy and Venice	-	257,830	36,049,467	139
Kingdom of Sardinia - -	-	29,167	4,650,368	159
Papal States - -	-	17,494	2,898,115	165
Two Sicilies - -	-	41,906	8,423,316	201
Tuscany, with Lucca - -	-	9,117	1,786,875	194
Modena - -	-	2,129	513,343	241
Parma - -	-	2,274	496,803	218
San Marino - -	-	21	7,600	361
Spain - -	-	182,758	12,168,774	66
Portugal - -	-	35,260	3,412,500	96
Turkey in Europe - -	-	189,920	15,000,000	79
Greece - -	-	18,244	688,626	38
Prussia - -	-	107,300	16,285,013	152
Russia - -	-	2,100,286	60,362,315	29
Sweden - -	-	170,096	3,316,536	19
Norway - -	-	122,008	1,328,471	11
Denmark, with Iceland - -	-	52,315	2,303,077	44
		3,797,256	259,063,219	68

* The adjacent islands are included in all cases.

CHAP. IV,

ASIA.

M. G. Pl. XIX. XX. XXI.

EAST of Europe is Asia (Pl. XIX.), bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the east by the Pacific, on the south by the Indian Ocean. The Red Sea and an imaginary line drawn across the Isthmus of Suez separate it from Africa, on the west. Its boundary toward Europe has been already described.

The outline of Asia is very irregular. In the north, the Seas of Karskaia and Obi form considerable inlets. In the north-east, the peninsula of Kamtchatka and the Kurile Islands inclose the Sea of Okhotsk. Further southward, between the mainland and the Japan Islands, is the Sea of Japan. Within the peninsula of Corea is the Yellow Sea, and still south the China Sea, having the Philippine Islands and Borneo to the east, and forming the Gulfs of Tonquin and Siam in the west. The long narrow peninsula of Malaya separates the Gulf of Siam from the Bay of Bengal. The Persian Gulf and the Red Sea form offsets from the Indian Ocean, and inclose the great peninsula of Arabia.

A vast mountain chain, under the names of the Altai, Jablonoi, and Stanovoi Mountains, traverses Central Asia from west to east. Northward, a great plain reaches to the Arctic Ocean. Southward, several little-known mountain ranges traverse the elevated plains of Mongolia and Thibet. The southern boundary of these plains is formed by the Himalaya Mountains, the highest in the world.

The greatest rivers are the Obi, Jenesei, and Lena, emptying themselves into the Arctic Ocean; the Saghalien,

Hoang-ho, and Yang-tse Kiang, flowing eastward; the Cambodia, Menam, Brahmapootra, Ganges, Indus, Tigris, and Euphrates, toward the south coast.

The following are the chief divisions of Asia. Between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, extending eastward to the Persian Gulf, is the Empire of Turkey in Asia, below which is Arabia.

North-east of Turkey in Asia, between the Black and Caspian Seas, lie the Trans-caucasian provinces of Russia. Eastward of the Ural, the vast, desolate plain of Siberia also belongs to Russia, extending the whole length of Asia, between the Arctic Ocean and the Altai Mountains. East of the Caspian is Independent Tartary, and east of this the immense Chinese Empire. Between the Caspian and the Persian Gulf is Persia. East of Persia are Affghanistan and Beloochistan, and still eastward, between the Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal, Hindostan, or the British Empire in Asia. East of this is Bermah, and below it Siam and the Malay peninsula. Above Siam is the Laos country, and on the coast of the Chinese Sea the Empire of Anam.

The islands on the Asiatic coast are the Aleutian Islands, between Asia and America; the Kurile Islands, south of Kamtchatka; Saghalien, and the Japan Islands, in the Sea of Japan; the Loo Choo Islands below them, and Formosa off the coast of China.

The Philippines, Borneo, Sumatra, and other islands in their vicinity, belong to the division of Australasia. We must not, however, omit to mention Ceylon, off the coast of Hindostan, or Cyprus in the Mediterranean.

The climate of Asia varies from the most intense cold to the greatest heat. Throughout the greater part of Siberia the ground never thaws at a short distance below the surface. And although the summers are hotter than might have been supposed, owing to the long continuance

of the sun above the horizon, yet they are short and uncertain.

In Northern Arabia, Persia, Southern Tartary, and the vast elevated plains of Mongolia and Thibet, rain is very infrequent. The summers are generally very hot, though the elevation of the plain of Thibet tempers their intensity in that country. Throughout all those districts, except Arabia, the winters are most rigorous. The Sihon in latitude 45° , and the Amoo in latitude 40° , freeze every winter; and the elevation of Thibet, if it modifies the summer heats, increases the severity of the cold in winter.

Southern Arabia, Hindostan, the Birman Empire, Siam, Anam, and a great part of China, lie within the region of the monsoons. These periodical winds blow from the north-east in winter, and from the south-west in summer. The south-west or summer monsoon brings rain. The exact period, however, of its commencement and termination varies with the locality and latitude.

The interruption of a mountain chain of even 5000 feet in altitude, if it crosses the direction of the monsoon, reverses the seasons. East of the Ghauts of India and the mountains of Cochin China, the north-east monsoon brings wet weather, and the climate is dry at the time when the opposite side of the range is deluged with rain.

The Malay peninsula is subject to extreme heat, and a more than usual amount of moisture, lying within the zone of almost continual precipitation.

From the middle of the coast of China to the mouth of the Ganges and southward, is a district subject to hurricanes, similar to those which prevail in the West Indies, and which often cause great destruction both by sea and land.

The climate of Asia Minor resembles that of Turkey in Europe, but is warmer, as lying further south. In Armenia and the Caucasus the winters are commonly severe,

Sect. 1. TURKEY IN ASIA.

Area, 482,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 9,000,000.

Below the Black Sea is Turkey in Asia (Pl. XXI.), bounded on the west by the Sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, and the Mediterranean; on the south by the Deserts of Arabia; and on the east by the Russian provinces of Imeritia and Georgia, and by Persia.

The subdivisions will be found below.*

The principal mountains are those of Olympus and Taurus, which run in parallel chains, inclosing a table-land. Erdjish Dag, an outlier of the Taurus, reaches 13,000 feet. This range also forms the watershed between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean.

On the eastern confines of Turkey in Asia is Mount Ararat, which reaches 17,000 feet, and upon the high table-land in its vicinity are the sources of rivers which flow into the Black Sea, the Caspian, and the Persian Gulf.

The southern ramifications of Mount Ararat form the mountainous district of Kurdistan.

Southward, parallel to the Mediterranean, is the double range of Mount Lebanon. Mount Hermon, the highest summit, in the more inland of the two chains, attains 10,000 feet.

The chief rivers of Turkey in Asia are:—the Kizil-Irmak, flowing into the Black Sea; the Syhoun, which flows into the Mediterranean; and the Tigris and Euphrates, which rise not far apart on the table-land of Armenia, and, traversing the plains of Bagdad, unite their waters and flow into the Persian Gulf below Basra. The

* Anadolia.	Diarbekr.	Rakka.
Karamania.	Syria.	Van.
Sivas.	Aleppo.	Mosul.
Marash.	Tripoli.	Bagdad.
Trebizonde.	Acre.	Basra.
Kars.	Gaza.	Part of Kurdistan.
Erzeroum.	Damascus.	

length of the Euphrates may be 1800 miles, and it is navigable for small vessels to Bir.

The Lakes of Hoiran (or Egerdir) and Koch-hissar, in Asia Minor, and the Lake Van, on the table-land of Armenia, are large bodies of water. The Dead Sea, in the valley of the Jordan, is also of considerable magnitude, and intensely salt.

The principal places in Turkey in Asia are—

In Anadolia—

Smyrna, with 140,000 inhabitants, the chief seat of trade in the Levant.

Brusa, a populous city, the stronghold of Mahometan fanaticism.

Angora, memorable for the decisive victory over Bajazet, the Turkish sultan, obtained by the Tartar monarch Tamerlane or Timur, 1401.

Kutayah, the capital of the province.

Kara Hissar, with 60,000 inhabitants.

In the other districts, between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean—

Konieh, in Karamania.

Tokat, in Sivas, with 100,000 inhabitants, and considerable trade.

Trebizonde, on the Black Sea, a place of considerable trade.

Erzeroum, once the stronghold of the Greek, now of the Turkish Empire. It has lost much of its importance. Pop. 40,000.

In Syria—

Aleppo, with 70,000 inhabitants. It is subject to earthquakes.

Antakia, a place of much diminished importance.

Beirut, one of the chief ports of Syria. Pop. 12,000.

St. Jean d'Acre, memorable for its siege and capture by the crusaders in 1104, by Saladin 1187, and by Richard I. 1191, and for its resistance to Napoleon 1799.

Damascus, with 140,000 inhabitants. It is celebrated for its manufacture of damask cloth, sword blades, silk, and saddlery.

Jerusalem, now reduced to about 12,000 inhabitants. It is, however, still the holy city of Jews, Christians, and Mahometans. Its former condition will be referred to in another part of this work.

On the Tigris—

Diarbekr, the capital of a like-named pachalic.

Mosul, near the ruins of ancient Nineveh. Pop. 45,000.

Bagdad, formerly the great emporium of the commerce of the East, and the seat of the Caliphate. It has still a population of 70,000.

Basra, or Bussorah, the chief port for Indian products, on the Shat-el-Arab, or stream formed by the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates.

Below the coast of Asia Minor is the Island of Cyprus, taken from the Greek Emperors by the Saracens, and wrested from them by Richard I. of England in 1191. He gave it to Guy de Lusignan. After 300 years it fell to the Venetians, and, in 1571, was taken by the Turks. The Islands of Mitylene, Chios, Rhodes, and others in the Archipelago, may also be considered as belonging to Asiatic Turkey. Rhodes was long the head-quarters of the Knights of St. John, who were driven out by the Turks in 1522.

The products of Turkey in Asia are inconsiderable, compared with the known capabilities of the country. Mineral wealth is confined to a little copper. Oil, wheat, figs, raisins, and other fruits, are cultivated. Wool and silk are largely produced. The horses are numerous and good. Arms, carpets, jewellery, and fabrics of silk, goats' hair, and cotton, are the chief manufactures.

Asiatic Turkey fell under the power of the Saracens during the decline of the Greek empire, and was the scene of perpetual conflicts prior to the crusades. From 1097 it was overrun by the crusaders for about 100 years, and, in the early part of the fifteenth century, was the scene of the conflicts between the Turks and Tartars under Tamerlane. Timur's conquests were short lived, and from that period the country has been under the withering

dominion of the Turks, whose oppressions have rendered it almost a desert.

The religion is Mahometan. The head of the government is the Grand Seignor or Sultan of Constantinople.

Sect. 2. ARABIA.

Area, 1,100,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 10,000,000 ?

Below Turkey in Asia, is Arabia (Pl. XIX.), forming a peninsula, of which the east side is washed by the Persian Gulf, the south by the Indian Ocean, and the west by the Red Sea, except where it is joined to Africa by the Isthmus of Suez.

The mass of the Arabian peninsula forms a table-land, elevated above the sea, but not broken up into mountain ranges. Mounts Sinai and Horeb, however, a group between the Gulfs of Akaba and Suez, are ever memorable for the awful circumstances of the delivery of the law to Moses.

Arabia has no important rivers or lakes. Its few short streams are generally dried up at certain seasons. The interior is, however, but little known, and it is possible that some lakes may exist in the higher lands.

The places worthy of notice are few. It may be enough to mention —

Medina, the burial-place of Mahomet.

Mecca, his birth-place, and the sacred city of the Mahometans.

The Arabians had held it sacred before the time of Mahomet, through a fancy that Adam was created of clay taken from this place. Pop. 30,000.

Mocha, famed for its coffee.

Aden, a station of the East India Company, important to the steam navigation through the Red Sea and Mediterranean.

The only island worthy of notice is that of Bahrein, in the Persian Gulf, famed for its pearl fishery.

Arabia furnishes maize, wheat, millet, spices, coffee, and dates. Goats, sheep, camels, asses, and horses, are the chief domestic animals. The horses, especially, are the most celebrated in the world for elegance and speed; and it is to Arabian parentage that we owe some of our fleetest racers.

The manufactures are entirely domestic.

Arabia was originally split up, as it is at the present day, into countless tribes, under independent chiefs. Through the power of his arms and his religious pretensions, Mahomet united the Arabs, and his successors carried the terror of the Arabian name through Africa and Spain, even into the south of France, as well as through Syria, Asia Minor, and the whole coast of the Mediterranean, Persia, and the Tartar hordes. Bagdad became the capital of the empire, till captured by a Tartar army in 1258. The Tartar power was itself subsequently compelled to give place to that of the Turks. The Arabian or Saracen empire has become extinguished, and petty tribes divide Arabia, as before.

Sect. 3. TRANS-CAUCASIAN PROVINCES OF RUSSIA.

Area, 65,726 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,648,000.

North-east of Turkey in Asia (Pl. XVI.) lie the Russian provinces on the south side of the Caucasus, consisting of Georgia, Imeritia, Mingrelia, Abassia, and Russian Armenia. These countries are bounded on the north by the main ridge of the Caucasus, on the west by the Black Sea, on the east by the Caspian, and on the south by the river Aras, which separates them from Persia.

The ramifications of the Caucasus render the whole northern portion of these provinces a mountain land. The south has, however, spacious open plains.

The Kur and Aras are the chief rivers, and both fall into the Caspian by the same mouth. The Lake of Gokcha, or Sevan, is the largest and most important sheet of water.

The chief place is —

Tiflis, on the Kur, with 30,000 inhabitants.

These countries produce lead, iron, copper, and coal.

All kinds of grain are grown, and a considerable amount of wine is produced. Sheep, horses, and mules, are chiefly reared in the mountains; camels on the plains; oxen in both.

The Georgian children, like the Circassian, were formerly sold by their parents for slaves, and sent to Constantinople. This traffic is, however, now prohibited. Georgia, formerly an independent kingdom, was placed under the protection of Russia 1799; and was incorporated with it in 1802.

The religion is that of the Greek Church.

Sect. 4. SIBERIA.

Area, 4,755,325 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,937,000.

The whole north of Asia (Pl. XIX.) is occupied by Siberia, forming part of the Russian empire.

It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by the Ural Mountains, on the east by Behring's Straits and the Sea of Kamtchatka, which separate it from America. The Altai and Jablonoi Mountains, on the south, separate it from the empire of China.

The Cape of Sievero Vostochnoi, the most northerly land in Asia; East Cape, on Behring's Straits, opposite to North America; and Cape Lopatka, the south extremity of Kamtchatka, are the most remarkable promontories.

The subdivisions are given below.*

The principal mountains are the Ural chain, already mentioned, and the Altai Mountains, on the south boundary of Siberia. Their culminating point, Bielucha, in latitude 50°, attains above 11,000 feet. The Jablonoi and Stanovoi Mountains seem to be a prolongation of the same chain eastward, and encircle the Sea of Okhotsk, where they rarely exceed 3000 feet; but stretching down the peninsula of Kamtchatka, their altitude again rises to 10,000, and even 11,000 feet. The whole north of Siberia is a frozen plain, or impassable morass.

The rivers of Siberia are some of the largest in the world. The Obi, or Ob, rises in the Altai Mountains, not far from the sources of its mightiest affluent, the Irtish, and flowing by Tomsk, enters the Sea of Obi, a great gulf of the Arctic Ocean, below Berezov. Its course is 2600 miles. The Irtish takes a more westerly direction, and, receiving the Tobol, at Tobolsk, falls into the Obi at Simarova. The Jenesei rises in Mongolia, and breaking through the Sayan Mountains, a northern branch of the Altai, falls, after a course of 3000 miles, into the Arctic Sea, east of the Obi. It receives, near Jeneseisk, the Tunguska, which flows from the great lake Baikal. The Lena rises north of Lake Baikal, and, flowing eastward to Jakutsk, bends northward and falls into the Arctic Ocean, where it forms a delta of many islands. Its course is 2800 miles. The Lake Baikal, in the neighbourhood of the Altai Mountains, is about 400 miles long, and nearly 60 broad. The water is fresh.

The chief towns are —

Berezov, on the Obi, the only town in a very large district of the north. It is also a place of residence for the exiles from Russia.

* Tobolsk.
Omsk.
Tomsk.

Jeneseisk.
Jakutsk.
Irkutsk.

Okhotsk.
Kamtchatka.

Tobolsk, the capital of Western Siberia, with considerable trade in furs. It is likewise important, as on the high-road of the overland traffic with China.

Tomsk, capital of the government of the same name.

Irkutsk, about 80 miles from Lake Baikal.

Jakutsk, on the Lena, a small place, but the centre of the trade with the polar regions.

The Liakhov Islands, in the Polar Sea, and the Aleutian Islands, which form a connecting chain between Kamtchatka and the peninsula of Aliaska in North America, may be considered as belonging to Siberia.

The Altai Mountains, and the eastern flanks of the Ural, are rich in gold and platinum. Copper, antimony, zinc, and other metals are also found.

Barley and rye are grown as far north as about latitude 65°. Pine, birch, and willow, are found 10° further.

Horses are confined chiefly to the south-west; reindeer and dogs supplying their place elsewhere. Sheep are only kept in the southern districts. At Berezov, and other places in the north, the inhabitants live chiefly on such animals as are captured in the chase.

Roving tribes of Ostiaks, Samoiedes, Jukagires, and Jakouts, occupy these dreary wastes. The Kirghiz hordes of the Tartar family inhabit the south-west.

Siberia was gradually brought under the Russian dominion at an early period of its empire. Kamtchatka was reduced in 1696. The religion of the scattered tribes in the north is Pagan. The Tartar hordes in the south-west are Mahometans. About half the population belong to the Greek Church.

Sect. 5. INDEPENDENT TARTARY, OR TURKESTAN.

Area, 727,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 6,538,000.

South-west of Siberia is Independent Tartary. Its western boundary is formed by the river Ural and the

Caspian. Persia and Affghanistan are on the south; the Chinese empire on the east. It is occupied by the Kirghiz hordes, and the Khanats of Khiva, Bokhara, and Kokan.

The country consists partly of undulating plains, large portions of which are desert for want of water, and partly of mountain chains, the base of which is more fruitful. The Hindoo Koosh bounds it on the south-east, and attains a height of near 18,000 feet. The chain of Muz Tagh is also of considerable altitude.

The chief rivers are the Sihon and the Amoo, which flow into the Sea of Aral, a great inland lake, eastward of the Caspian. The Lake Balkash, on the confines of Chinese Tartary, is not less than 100 miles in diameter.

The chief places are—

Khiva, the capital of a Khanat or independent government.

Bokhara, with 150,000 inhabitants, the capital of the most important division of Tartary.

Samarcand, much decayed. It has now only 10,000 inhabitants.

The burial-place of Tamerlane. It was taken by Jenghis Khan in 1220, became under Timur the greatest seat of commerce and learning in Asia, and had once probably ten times its present population.

Kokan, in a fertile country, has 70,000 inhabitants.

The chief products are, gold from the Amoo, coal, copper, lapis lazuli, and precious stones, especially turquoises. Cotton and dried fruits are its principal vegetable productions. Silkworms, camels, horses, sheep, and goats, are reared abundantly; cattle more sparingly.

North of the Sea of Aral the inhabitants are chiefly nomade tribes, living in tents. The towns are few, and mostly unfortified. The south-eastern part has the largest stationary population. The western portion of Thibet revolted about 1830 from the Chinese dominion, and Cashgar and Yarkand, formerly subject to the Emperor

of China, are now independent, and may be classed with the foregoing States.

The religion of the Tartar hordes is nominally Mahometan. There are amongst them, however, a few Christians; but the roving tribes pay little regard to any faith, holding many antient national superstitions.

The country was overrun by Jenghis Khan about 1220, and many of the inhabitants are descended from his soldiers. About 160 years later it was ruled by Tamerlane. The northern and eastern tribes owe a nominal allegiance to Russia, but are virtually independent.

The government of the Khans is despotic, but they are liable to be deposed or deserted, if they do not govern according to the usages of their people.

Sect. 6. CHINESE EMPIRE.

Area, 5,300,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 370,000,000 ?

Extending from Independent Tartary to the Pacific, is the vast empire of China. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the east by the Sea of Japan, the Yellow Sea, and the China Sea, as far as the Gulf of Tonquin. On the south, the Himalaya Mountains, and the empires of Birmah and Anam, with the country of the Laos, form the boundary.

The whole of this district, about half as large again as Europe, and forming one third of Asia, is little known to Europeans, but is divided into the regions of Mongolia in the north-west; Manchuria in the north-east, including the peninsula of Corea; the great desert of Shamo, or Gobi, in the centre; Thibet in the south-west; and China Proper, which is incomparably the most fruitful and populous portion of the empire, in the south-east.

Four great mountain chains traverse these countries from west to east, being more or less connected at both

extremities, the interior partaking of the character of table-lands.

The Altai chain, on the confines of Siberia, and partly within that country, has been already mentioned. Next to this, the Muz Tagh and Thian Shan Mountains form the southern boundary of Mongolia. The western portion of this chain is not of great elevation, but further eastward it is far above the snow line, though of unknown height. A few summits are volcanic. The plain of Mongolia is not very elevated. South-east of this is the Desert of Gobi, barren, and covered with loose sand; it forms part of the rainless district of the globe, and there is scarcely any vegetation, except at the foot of the mountain ranges, where streams occur. This desert is elevated about 4000 feet above the sea. South of this the Kuen-lun Mountains are only known to us through the Chinese, but they pass the snow line in many places, and form a double branch toward the east. Below these are the Himalaya, the highest known mountains in the world, the culminating points, Kinchinjinga and Dhawalagiri, attaining the stupendous height of 28,000 feet. Between the Kuen-lun and the Himalaya range is the plain of Thibet, raised to an altitude of more than 15,000 feet, nearly equal to that of the highest summit of the Alps.

On the west frontier of Manchuria the Khin-gan Mountains are of no great height, and covered with forests to the top. Other chains further south are little known to us, but appear to connect the ranges already mentioned, and are said, in some instances, to exceed the snow line.

In the deserts there are no rivers. But Mongolia and Thibet contain the sources of several of the most important streams in Asia.

In the north-west the Irtish rises, to the eastward of Lake Dzaizang, through which it flows, traversing the Altai Mountains west of Bielucha. Further eastward, the Se-

lenga flows, through passes of the Altai, into Lake Baikal, and may be considered as the real source of the Jenesei. Still eastward, the Amoor or Saghalien breaks through the Khin-gan Mountains, and traverses Manchuria, falling into the Gulf of Tartary, at the north extremity of the Sea of Japan. Its course is about 2700 miles.

From the plains of Thibet flow the Indus, Brahmapootra, Salwein, and Cambodia, all flowing toward the south. The Yang-tse Kiang rises in the Kuen-lun Mountains, and, flowing through the whole breadth of China, falls into the sea below Nankin. Its course is about 3300 miles.

The Hoang Ho or Yellow River also rises in the same range, and, flowing with a most eccentric course through China, falls into the sea somewhat north of the Yang-tse Kiang.

In Mongolia there are many lakes, but the Lake Dzaizang, already mentioned, is the largest. On the confines of China, south of the Desert, is the Koko Nor, above 100 miles in length, and in Thibet the Tengri Nor and Lake Palte are still larger. The latter is an annular lake, with a circular island in the centre, whose diameter is about 40 miles.

The most important places in the Chinese Empire are:—
North of the Thian Shan—

Ele, the principal entrepôt of trade between Tartary and China.
Karakorum, formerly the capital of Jenghis Khan, now in ruins.
Ourga, on the route from Siberia to China.

In Thibet—

Lassa, the capital and residence of the Dalai Lama, whom the Thibetians suppose to be an incarnation of their divinity, Buddha.
It has also considerable trade.

In Manchuria—

Oula Saghalien, the capital.

In China—

Pekin, the capital. The population has been estimated at 1,500,000.

Nankin, formerly the capital, near the Yang-tse Kiang.

Shang-hae and Ning-po, both on the east coast, to the south of the Yang-tse Kiang, were made free ports in 1842.

Foo-chow, also one of the ports opened to foreigners in 1842.

Amoy, with 250,000 inhabitants. It was captured and held by the British during the war with China in 1841. It is now a free port.

Canton, the only port for trade with Europeans previous to 1842. Its population is estimated at near a million. It was taken by the British in 1841.

Macao, granted by the Emperor of China to the Portuguese, in 1586. It was long the only place where Europeans had any settlement.

Yunnan, in the extreme south; said to be one of the most important places of the interior.

Among the islands off the coast of the Chinese Empire are Saghalien, the northern part of which belongs to China, and the southern to Japan; Hong-kong, a small island off the entrance to the Canton river, in lat. 22°, ceded to the British; Formosa, an important island traversed by a volcanic chain, whose summits reach 12,000 feet; and Hainan, a mountainous island, inclosing the Gulf of Tonquin. Many of its summits pass the snow line.

The chief products are copper and lead in Mongolia; gold in Thibet; tea, sugar, rice, cotton, in China; furs and skins in Mongolia, Manchuria, and Thibet. The riches of the nomade tribes inhabiting these countries consist almost entirely of sheep, cattle, horses, and camels. Silk is extensively produced in China, and porcelain of great beauty is manufactured.

The Chinese seem to have arrived early at a greater degree of civilisation than their neighbours; and, nearly two centuries before the Christian era, are said to have built the great wall, a stupendous work, to repress the invasions of the Manchoo Tartars, whose aggressions, how-

ever, became so frequent that the Mongolians were called in to repress them. Jenghis Khan in the thirteenth century extended the Mongol empire over part of China; his conquests in the opposite direction extended over Persia, Turkestan, and even to Russia, Poland, and Hungary. His great successor, Kublai Khan, overthrew the native Chinese dynasty, and became Emperor of China. The Mongol dynasty enjoyed the Chinese throne till 1366, but were then expelled by the Chinese, who, in their turn, succumbed to the Manchoo Tartars in 1618. The throne still continues in their possession, Mongolia having been reduced to a condition of nominal dependence upon China: but a revolution is at the present moment in progress, and it appears by no means improbable that the native Chinese dynasty may again supplant the Manchoo power.

The national religion of China is that of Confucius, who lived about 530 B. C. He conceived that the earth was peopled with genii, demons, and spirits of the deceased. The latter receive especial regard in China, and the elements, virtues, and mental qualities are worshipped.

The religion of Thibet and Mongolia is Buddhism. They suppose the Dalai Lama or high priest to be an incarnation of their divinity Buddha, and assert that he never dies, but quits one body for another, and on the death of the Dalai Lama suppose that Buddha has migrated into the body of some newly-born infant, who is Dalai Lama from that time.

The government of China is a limited monarchy. The Mongols and Thibetians, though tributary to China, exercise a sort of patriarchal government, and are widely separated from the Chinese by habits of life.

Sect 7. PERSIA.

Area, 482,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 11,230,000.

Returning to the west of Asia, above the Persian Gulf, is Persia. On the north, separated from the Trans-cau-

casian provinces of Russia by the Aras, and further bounded by the Caspian Sea and Independent Tartary. Its western boundary is formed by the mountains of Kurdistan and the Tigris. Affghanistan and Beloochistan bound it on the east.

A chain of mountains runs from Mount Ararat parallel to the Tigris and the Persian Gulf. Along the south coast of the Caspian are the mountains of Elburz, which attain 14,000 feet. Between these two ranges is the plateau of Persia, consisting in great part of desert, and elevated from 3000 to 4000 feet above the sea.

Persia is ill watered, the principal rivers being the Aras or Araxes on the northern boundary, and the affluents of the Tigris.

The Lake Urumiah, 100 miles long by 25 broad, on the north-west frontier, is the principal sheet of water, and is intensely salt.

The principal places are —

Teheran, the capital, with a population of 70,000.

Tabriz, between the Caspian and Lake Urumiah. The climate during the winter is very severe.

Hamadan. Much more temperate, and much frequented in summer; as it was, under the name of Ecbatana, among the antient Persians.

Kirmanshah, much reduced, but still a place of some commerce.

Isphahan, with above 100,000 inhabitants. It has manufactures of gold and silver tissue, shawls, and carpets.

Yezd, said to be equally populous. Arms, sugar, and cotton fabrics, are manufactured.

Shiraz, formerly one of the most important places in Persia, now greatly decayed; but upon the route to Bushire, the only Persian port of any consequence.

Iron, copper, lead, and turquoises, are the chief mineral riches. Cotton, tobacco, opium, vines, and mulberries, abound.

Camels, valuable horses, and sheep, are the chief animals in domestic use. Cattle are kept chiefly for their labour.

Persia became a kingdom of importance under Shah Abbas in the 16th century; but his successors were feeble, and their country was overrun by the Affghans, till Nadir Shah, a ferocious conqueror, restored it to its former limits. These have, however, since his death, been reduced by the encroachments of Russia.

The religion of Persia is chiefly Mahometan, but of a different sect from that of Turkey. The doctrines of Zoroaster, however, still remain in many places. He considered that two adverse spirits, Ahriman and Ormuzd, or light and darkness, created all things, and are now contending for the empire of the world. Hence the reverence for fire, light, and heat, amongst his followers. These, however, are not to be confounded with the Guebres, or Fire Worshippers, a sect now almost extinct.

The government, like that of most Eastern nations, is despotic.

Sect. 8. BELOOCHISTAN.

Area, 200,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 1,000,000 ?

East of Persia is Beloochistan, formerly part of the Persian empire, but now independent. It is bounded on the south by the Indian Ocean, on the east by India, on the north by Affghanistan.

The mountains on the east form a range rising to 8000 or 10,000 feet.

There are no rivers of importance, and great part of the flat lands are a sandy desert.

The chief place is Kelat, taken by the British in 1839, but since restored.

Brimstone, salt, lead, iron, tin, and naphtha, are found. Dates abound. Melons and the fruits of Europe ripen,

and are excellent. Grain, rice, cotton, and sugar, are cultivated, but the country is essentially pastoral.

Broad-tailed sheep, cattle, goats, camels, and horses, are reared. The religion of the Beloochees is Mahometan. The government is under the Khan of Kelat, but the inferior chiefs are in great measure independent.

Sect. 9. AFFGHANISTAN.

Area, 170,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 7,280,000.

Above Beloochistan is Affghanistan, bounded on the west by Persia, on the north by Independent Tartary, and on the east by the Punjaub, from which it is separated by the Suleiman Mountains, which rise to about 12,000 feet; but the principal mountains are the Hindoo Koosh, on the frontier of Tartary, which have an elevation, to the north of Caubul, of from 18,000 to 20,000 feet.

The western parts of Affghanistan are plain, and the south-west desert.

The chief river is the Helmund, which rises near Caubul in the north-east, and flows into Lake Zurrah, on the confines of Persia.

The principal places are—

Caubul, on a plain 6000 feet above the sea. It has 60,000 inhabitants, and is memorable for its occupation by the British in 1839, and their disastrous retreat from thence, after the murder of the British envoys. Caubul was reoccupied by the British in 1842, and its fortifications destroyed.

Peshawur, a large and populous city, with considerable trade.

Ghuznee, the Affghan capital, stormed by the British in 1839.

Candahar, with some commerce.

Herat, the capital of an independent district, situated in a fertile plain, and the great emporium of trade between Persia, Tartary, and India.

Gold, iron, copper, antimony, and coal exist, but are little wrought. The fruits of India are grown in the warmer vallies, and those of Europe on the hills. Rice, maize, grain, sugar, cotton, indigo, and assafoetida, are amongst its products.

Horses are exported in great numbers, and sheep, goats, cattle, and camels are reared.

The monarchs of Affghanistan at one period overran Persia, and established a short-lived empire, reaching from the Tigris to the Ganges. The victories of Nadir Shah wrested Persia from their grasp, and eventually reduced Affghanistan to the condition of a subject province. On his death in 1747 it again became independent, and has so continued. The invasion of the country by the British has been already noticed.

Sect. 10. INDIA.

Area, 1,214,483 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 140,000,000.

East of Affghanistan and Beloochistan is Hindostan (Pl. XX.), bounded on the north by the great range of the Himalaya Mountains, on the east by the Birmese empire, on the south by the Indian Ocean, which washes it in great measure also upon the east and west.

Hindostan may be conveniently subdivided into the British possessions; the Tributary states, under British protection; and the Independent possessions of native princes.

Among the British states are—

Sinde, on the lower course of the Indus.

The Punjab, or Country of the Five Waters, so called from the rivers Indus, Jelum, Chenab, Ravee, and Gharra or Sutlej, which all unite before reaching its southern angle. These two countries are amongst those most recently acquired by Britain.

Delhi.

Agra.

Oude, } parts of which are only tributary.
Allahabad, }

Bahar.

Bengal, at the mouths of the Ganges and Brahmapootra. The most fertile and populous, and one of the oldest of our possessions, though hardly yet acquired by us more than a hundred years.

Lower and Upper Assam, }
Chittagong, } taken from the Birman Empire.
Aracan, }

Below Bengal are—

Orissa, more inland, and

Kuttack, with } on the coast.
The Circars, }

Below these are —

The Carnatic, whose sea-board is known as the Coromandel coast.
Bejapoor, on a table-land where the peninsula grows narrower.

On the western side are —

Canara.

Concan.

Aurangabad.

Candeish.

The Tributary states are —

Bhawalpoor.

Rajpootana.

Cutch.

Gujerat.

Malwa.

Rewah.

Allahabad, } parts only of which are tributary, and parts British
Oude, } possessions.

Sikim, under the Himalaya Mountains.

And in the peninsula, or Deccan —

Berar.

Hydrabad.

Mysore.

Travancore, at the extreme south. The sea-board is here called the Malabar coast.

The Independent states are —

Nepaul, }
Bhotan, } at the foot of the Himalaya Mountains.

The extreme southern point of the Deccan is Cape Comorin.

The principal mountains are the Himalaya chain, already described, the loftiest in the world; and yet, owing to the elevation of the plains of Thibet to a height of 15,000 feet, on their northern side, the Indus and the Sutlej are enabled to burst through them. South of the Himalaya is a great plain, separated on the west from Affghanistan by the Suleiman Mountains, which attain 10,000 or 12,000 feet; and from Beloochistan, further south, by the Hala or Bra-hooich Mountains, which have a less elevation.

Below the great plain are the Vindhya Mountains; and still south, an extensive table-land, supported by the Eastern and Western Ghauts; a narrow strip of low land intervening between the plateau and either coast.

The chief rivers are —

The Indus, which rises in the kingdom of Ladak, on the confines of the Chinese empire, and after passing through the Himalaya Mountains, and receiving the united streams of the Jelum, Chenab, Ravee, and Sutlej, at Mittun Kote, flows with a powerful and rapid stream into the Indian Ocean, by a delta of many mouths.

The Sutlej rises not far from the sources of the Indus, and bursts through the Himalaya by a separate pass.

The Ganges rises from the south flank of the Himalaya, nearly opposite to the sources of the Indus, on the northern side of the mountains, and flowing south-eastward, forms a very extensive delta in Bengal. The overflowed forests and jungle at its mouth are known as the Sunderbunds. At Allahabad it receives the Jumna, a great river, with a course nearly parallel to its own.

The Sanpoo, or Brahmapootra, rises in the vicinity of

the Sutlej, and flowing south-east, as the Sutlej flows north-west, it curves round the extremity of the Himalaya chain, and is connected with the delta of the Ganges.

Below these, the Nerbudda flows from east to west, at the top of the Deccan, and empties itself into the Gulf of Cambay.

The Mahanuddy, Godavery, Kistnah, and Coleroon, rise in the table-land of the Deccan, and flow eastward into the Bay of Bengal.

The principal places worthy of mention are : —

In the basin of the Indus and its tributaries —

Cashmere, on the Jelum, the capital of the like-named territory, and the chief seat of shawl manufacture, in a picturesque and fertile country.

Amritsir, the sacred city of the Sikh religion.

Lahore, once the seat of the Mogul empire in India, subsequently the capital of the Sikh territory of the Punjab, now annexed to the British dominions.

Aliwal, } near the Sutlej, the scenes of the victories gained by
Sobraon, } the British over the Sikhs in 1846.

Mooltan, taken by the British in 1849. It has 80,000 inhabitants.

Hydrabad, the principal place in Sinde.

In the basin of the Ganges and its tributaries —

Delhi, on the Jumna, the seat of the former Mogul empire.

It has a population of 200,000, and is still the seat of a nominal empire, but is virtually under the government of the British. It was taken by Timur, 1398; and by Baber, who established the Mogul dynasty, in 1525.

Agra, also on the Jumna. Population 70,000. Here is the Taj Mahal, the finest monument in India, built by the Emperor Jehangire. It is the seat of a lieutenantancy to the Presidency of Bengal, and was erected into a separate presidency in 1833, but the arrangement has not been acted upon.

Bareilly, in a flat fertile district, north-east of Agra.

Lucknow, with a population of 200,000, and formerly still more numerous, the capital of the kingdom of Oude, under British protection.

Allahabad, at the junction of the sacred streams, Ganges and Jumna, and a place of pilgrimage to large numbers of the Hindoos.

Benares, the holy city of the Hindoos. Pop. 630,000. It has considerable trade, and is at once the most populous and wealthiest city in India.

Patna, with 300,000 inhabitants, in a district producing salt-petre, opium, and rice.

Dacca, once the capital of Bengal. Pop. 200,000. It was formerly celebrated for the most delicate texture of Indian muslins, but the manufacture is almost extinct.

Calcutta, on the river Hooghly, the principal arm of the Ganges. Pop. about 400,000. The capital of the Presidency of Bengal and of the British government in India. It is a place of comparatively recent origin, owing its importance to its having become the seat of government.

Moorshedabad, a populous but rather decaying place. About 30 miles south is Plassey, the scene of the victory of Lord Clive, 1757, which gave Bengal to the British, and may be considered the foundation of our empire in the East.

Toward the western coast of the Deccan are —

Ahmedabad, with 100,000 inhabitants. North of the Bay of Cambay.

Baroda. Population about equal to Ahmedabad, of which it is south-east.

Surat, a large, populous town, but its importance is diminished by the absence of a navigable river.

Bombay, on an island. Population 230,000. The capital of a British presidency, and one of the most important cities in Asia. It was ceded to the English in 1688, by the Portuguese, by treaty. On an adjacent island are the celebrated sculptured caves of Elephanta.

Poonah, on the table-land east of the Ghauts. Population 110,000.

Goa, a settlement belonging to the Portuguese, who have also Damaun and the Island of Diu, on either side of the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay.

On the eastern coast are —

Madras, the capital of a presidency, and the earliest of our Indian possessions, granted to us in 1639. Population about 400,000. It is the see of a bishop.

Pondicherry, a French settlement.

Tranquebar, formerly belonging to the Danes, but purchased from Denmark by Britain, in 1845.

In the interior are —

Nagpoor, the capital of Berar, with 115,000 inhabitants. About 200 miles west by south of this is Assaye, the scene of the first victory of the Duke of Wellington.

Hydrabad. Population 200,000. Capital of the dominions of the Nizam or king of Hydrabad, under British protection.

Bangalore, on the table-land east of Madras, a healthy situation, 3000 feet above the sea.

Arcot, once the residence of the Nabobs of Arcot.

Seringapatam, the capital of Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo Saib, who were constantly at war with the British. Seringapatam was taken, and Tippoo Saib slain, in 1799, and his territories added to the British dominions.

Trichinopoly, with 100,000 inhabitants, a place of considerable commerce.

The principal island off the coast of Hindostan is Ceylon, situated to the south-east of Cape Comorin, and separated from the mainland by the Gulf of Manaar and the Palk Straits. It is nearly connected with the continent by the curious reef called Adam's Bridge, which nowhere admits of the passage of large vessels, and is dangerous even for small craft. In some places it rises above water, and sometimes is a short depth below. The area of Ceylon is 24,000 square miles; the population 1,442,062.

The mountains are chiefly in the south-west. Adam's Peak, the most remarkable, rises to 6100 feet.

Its chief places are —

Kandy, the capital of the interior.

Columbo, the chief seaport and European capital, on the west coast. Pop. 40,000.

Trincomalee, with an excellent harbour, in the north-east.

West of the Malabar coast are the Laccadive Islands, and below them the Maldives. Most of these are little

better than coral reefs, inhabited by a population dependent upon the government of Ceylon.

Far to the east of Hindostan are the Andaman Isles, inhabited by a scanty, savage, population. They were once occupied by Great Britain, but relinquished owing to the unhealthiness of the climate. Below these are the Nicobar Islands, which have been forsaken by Europeans for the same reasons. The people are an inoffensive race.

The products of Hindostan are coal, nitre, salt, precious stones, gold, silver, iron, and copper.

Magnificent timber, rice, cotton, sugar, indigo, opium, coffee, and tobacco, are among the staple products; to which may be added tea, in Assam.

The sheep and goats of Cashmere are celebrated for their delicate wool. That of the goat is a fine coating below the hair. The elephant, camel, horse, and buffalo, are all domesticated. Silkworms are largely reared.

The manufactures are chiefly various fabrics woven by hand, and with the rudest machinery. The making of arms, and also of jewellery, are sources of employment. Agriculture is backward.

In the year 1000, the Mahometans of Affghanistan invaded Hindostan, and in 1193 founded an Affghan empire at Delhi; independent princes of the same nation reigning over other districts to the south and west. In 1525, Baber invaded India, and founded the Mogul Empire, having expelled the Affghans and conquered their country. He was a descendant of Tamerlane, and came from that part of Tartary to the east of the Caspian. As Tamerlane, however, boasted of his descent from the soldiers of Jenghis Khan, the Mongol, the dynasty of Baber was called that of the Moguls or Mongols, and not that of the Turcomans or Tartars. The empire of Baber was carried to its highest pitch by Aurungzebe, who carried the Mahometan doctrines over the greater part of India.

In 1639 the British obtained a footing at Madras. In 1688 they obtained Bombay. In 1750 the victories of Lord Clive gave them Bengal, and abolished the Mogul empire; and since that time an unbroken career of conquest has brought almost the whole of Hindostan under the British power.

There are a few Nestorian Christians yet remaining in the south. The doctrines of the English Church have made but inconsiderable impression upon the native population. Other forms of religion are the Brahminical, Buddhist, Mahometan, and Sikh.

The Brahminical or Hindoo religion is a polytheism, receiving countless multitudes of gods, some good, some evil. Its votaries believe in the immortality and transmigration of the soul into other bodies, human or brute. They believe also in a Trinity, — Brahma, Vishnoo, and Siva, or Creator, Preserver, and Destroyer. The population is divided into a number of distinct castes or orders, from any one of which there is no transition to a higher.

The Mahometan religion is scattered throughout India, but is chiefly found in the west. The Buddhists are abundant in Ceylon, as well as in Thibet, but they are not very numerous in Hindostan.

The Sikh religion is a modification of Hindooism, but without caste. The founder, Govind Singh, is esteemed the prophet of the Sikhs.

The government of Hindostan under the East India Company is divided into three presidencies, Madras, Bengal, and Bombay. The Governor-General resides at Calcutta, which may, therefore, be considered the capital of the whole. The East India Company is responsible to the British Parliament, and the British Government maintain a certain portion of the troops requisite for its defence.

Sect. 11. BIRMAH.

Area, 210,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 4,000,000.

East of the British provinces beyond the Ganges is the Burmese Empire, bounded on the north by Assam and Thibet; on the east by the Chinese Empire, Laos, and the British province of Martaban; and on the south by the Indian Ocean. Cape Negrais forms the south-west extremity.

The mountains of Birmah are little known, excepting that a range of no great altitude divides the country from the British provinces on the west; and another chain, running in a north and south direction, attains the snow limit in about latitude 27° .

The chief river is the Irrawaddy, which rises on the confines of Thibet, and flows into the Indian Ocean, after a course of about 1000 miles.

The chief places are —

Ava, the capital. The population does not much exceed 50,000. Prome, on the Irrawaddy, captured by the British in 1852.

Pegu, formerly the capital of an independent kingdom, lately subject to Birmah. Pegu itself, from being a populous place, is now little better than a village.*

Rangoon, near the mouth of the Irrawaddy, the chief port of the Burmese Empire, taken by the British, 1852.

The chief products are amber and other precious stones, iron, copper, lead, and nitre.

Valuable timber, especially teak, cotton, sugar, indigo, rice, tea, and various sorts of grain.

Cattle, goats, and swine are reared, but few sheep, and little animal food is eaten. Elephants and horses are used, but camels are unknown.

* The province of Pegu is now annexed to the British territory.

The attacks made on the British possessions in Chittagong brought England into collision with the Birmese, and in 1826, Aracan and the Tenasserim provinces, consisting of Martaban, Yeh, Tavoy, and Mergui, were ceded to the British. Further outrages have again renewed hostilities, which are still in progress. The religion of the Birmese is Buddhism.

Sect. 12. LAOS.

Area, 100,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 200,000.

East of Birmah is Laos, very little known to Europeans. The north is bounded by China, the east by the Empire of Anam, the south by Siam. The people are denominated Shans.

Mountains of considerable height are on the Chinese frontier.

The rivers Salwein, Menam, and Cambodia, all great streams, water the country. The Salwein and Cambodia rise in the table-land of Thibet. The former is the boundary between Laos and Birmah. The latter empties itself into the China Sea by a great delta, after a course of at least 2400 miles. The Menam rises in the south of China, and flows into the Gulf of Siam, having its course between the two. The chief city is Lanchang.

The population is in a great measure migratory.

Tin is abundant. Iron, lead, copper, and antimony are obtained.

Rice, sugar, tobacco, indigo, gums of various descriptions, and spices, are raised.

Elephants, oxen, and asses are domesticated, but no sheep.

The religion is Buddhist, the government a monarchy.

Sect. 13. SIAM.

Area, 190,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,790,000.

South of Laos is Siam, having Anam on the east; on the west the British Tenasserim provinces; and south the Gulf of Siam and the Malay peninsula.

The mountain chain which separates the basins of the Menam and Salwein rises to about 5000 feet. Another chain divides the basin of the Menam from that of the Cambodia, and forms a boundary between the empires of Siam and Anam.

The only river of importance is the Menam, already mentioned.

The principal place is —

Bankok, the capital, with a population of 60,000. The former capital, Yuthia, higher up the Menam, was destroyed by the Birmese.

The products are lead, iron, tin, copper, rice (abundant), sugar, pepper, tobacco, and valuable timber.

The elephant is in constant use. Oxen are also employed, but do not appear to be an article of food.

The history of Siam is little known. The northern part of the country is chiefly inhabited by Shan tribes, and formerly belonged to Laos. The religion is Buddhism, the government despotic.

Sect. 14. MALAY PENINSULA.

Area, 45,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 374,000.

Below Siam is the Malay peninsula, between the Gulf of Siam and the Straits of Malacca. The upper part of the peninsula is a portion of the Empire of Siam. On the south-west coast are the British settlements of Wellesley

province, the island of Pulo Penang (or Prince of Wales Island), Malacca, and the island of Singapore.

A ridge of mountains whose highest points are above 6000 feet runs down the peninsula.

Owing to the peninsular situation, there are no important rivers. The chief place is Malacca, formerly in possession of the Dutch, but exchanged with the British for Bencoolen, in Sumatra.

The mineral products are tin and gold. Iron is also found. Timber, various gums and spices, are abundant; with tobacco, cotton, sugar, coffee, indigo, rice, and sago.

Hogs, cattle, and elephants, are the principal domestic animals.

The peninsula, formerly under the dominion of the Siamese, is now divided into a number of petty independent states. The religion is Mahometan.

Sect. 15. ANAM.

Area, 127,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 5,000,000.

The south-eastern portion of Asia is occupied by the empire of Anam, bounded on the north by China, on the west by Laos and Siam; it is washed on the east by the China Sea, and on the south by the Gulf of Siam.

It is subdivided into Tonquin, Cochin China, and Cambodia. Cape Cambodia forms the south extremity.

A mountain chain traverses the country from north to south, nearly parallel to the coast, but at a considerable distance inland. Its height is unknown, but it is not thought to reach the snow line. The Cambodia is the principal river, and its course is probably not less than 2500 miles.

The chief places are:—

Kesho, the capital of Tonquin, with 150,000 inhabitants.

Saigon, in Cambodia, which is somewhat greater.

Gold, silver, copper, and iron, are found in Tonquin.

Magnificent timber is plentiful; cinnamon and various spices, with sugar, cotton, and other tropical plants, thrive.

Rice, mulberries, and various fruits, are produced in great abundance.

Buffaloes, oxen, goats, and swine, are the chief domestic animals; sheep are seldom found: none of these animals but swine, or sometimes goats, are eaten.

Silk is produced, but there is little manufacture of any kind. The chief employment is husbandry, which is very rude, and the making of such domestic utensils and clothing as are required for daily use.

Ship-building is the art in which the greatest excellence is attained.

The history of a rude people could have little interest, were we better acquainted with it. Buddhism is the religion of the masses, but the higher classes follow the doctrines of Confucius. There are nearly 500,000 nominal Roman Catholics.

The government is a despotism, conducted, however, through certain fixed public departments. The army has been disciplined under French instruction.

Sect. 16. JAPAN.

Area, 250,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 40,000,000?

It remains only to notice the empire of Japan, consisting of several islands lying east of the Sea of Japan.

The chief of these are Saghalien, of which the south part only belongs to the Japan empire, Jesso, Niphon the principal island, Sikokf, and Kiusiu.

These are all mountainous and abrupt, the culminating point of Niphon attaining 12,000 feet. Many summits are volcanic, and earthquakes are frequent.

The interior is little known to us, no foreigners being admitted into the country.

The principal places are:—

Jedo or Yedo, with a population of 700,000.

Meaco, supposed to have about 500,000 inhabitants.

Both are on the island of Nippon.

Copper is extensively wrought. Lead, tin, iron, and sulphur, are also obtained.

The fruits of the south of Europe, together with ginger, pepper, rice, tea, cotton, and tobacco, are the chief objects of cultivation.

Oxen and horses are used for draught. The silk-worm is extensively reared, and great quantities of silk are obtained. Sheep, goats, and swine are infrequent, little animal food being consumed.

The religion generally professed is Buddhism, but the original religion of the Japanese still lingers among all classes. It acknowledges a supreme being, who is to be approached through the mediation of the "Son of Heaven," or Mikado, and through the inferior Spirits, or Kami. It receives the immortality of the soul, and a state of future retribution.

The government is despotic.

The area and population of Asia may be roughly estimated as follows:—

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Turkey in Asia - -	428,000	9,000,000
Arabia - -	1,100,000	10,000,000
Transcaucasian Russia -	65,726	2,648,000
Siberia - -	4,755,325	2,937,000
Turkistan - -	727,000	6,538,000
Chinese Empire - -	5,300,000	370,000,000
Persia - -	482,000	11,230,000
Beloochistan - -	200,000	1,000,000
Affghanistan - -	170,000	7,280,000
India - -	1,214,483	140,000,000
Birmah - -	210,000	4,000,000
Laos - -	100,000	200,000
Malaya - -	45,000	374,000
Anam - -	127,000	5,000,000
Japan Empire - -	250,000	40,000,000
	15,174,534	610,207,000

CHAP. V.

AUSTRALASIA.

M. G. Plates I., XIX., and XXVIII.

THE remaining islands off the Asiatic coast will be comprised under the general name of Australasia.

Below Formosa are the Philippine Islands* (Pl. XIX.), of which the chief are Luzon, Palawan, and Mindanao. They belong to Spain, and are (with the exception of Cuba and Porto Rico) the last remnant of her once vast colonial possessions.

Luzon is mountainous, and contains many active volcanoes. The other islands are less known to Europeans. Manila, in Luzon, is the capital.

The Philippines yield gold, iron, copper, and salt.

They also produce rice, hemp, cotton, excellent spices, sugar, indigo, coffee, tobacco, maize, and timber.

The people are Roman Catholics, Mahometans, and Pagans.

These islands were discovered by Magelhaens in 1521, and since that time have been under the dominion of Spain.

Below the Philippines are the Sooloo Islands, a small

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>	
* Area of the group calculated at 134,115		3,500,000	{ Under Spanish rule.

group under a native ruler. They yield sago and most of the vegetable products of the Philippines, and also pearls. They have long been infamous for the piracy of their inhabitants.

Below these is Borneo, one of the largest islands in the world.* The Dutch have a few settlements on the west coast, but the remainder of the island is under the dominion of various native sovereigns, the Sultan of Borneo Proper, in the north-west, being the principal.

The coasts are for the most part swampy. There are numerous rivers and large plains in the interior, and high mountains occur in some parts of the island.

The chief places are Bruni or Borneo, and Benjarmassin.

Borneo yields gold, diamonds, tin, antimony, and iron. It also produces excellent camphor, rice, pepper, sago, and gutta-percha. The sea slug and edible birds' nests are also exported to China, and are in great request.

Borneo was formerly the great resort of Malay pirates; but, chiefly owing to the exertions of Sir James Brooke and a British force, the evil has been in great degree suppressed.

The inhabitants are partly Mahometans, and partly Pagans.

The small and previously uninhabited island of Labuan, on the north-west coast, has been ceded to the British, and, possessing coal, will be of great importance to our steam navigation in the Eastern seas. It must also from its situation become a great mart for the trade of the surrounding islands.

East of Borneo, and separated by the Strait of Macassar, is Celebes†, singularly indented by many gulfs. It has some volcanic points of no great altitude in the north, and

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
* Area of Borneo calculated at 260,000		4,000,000.
† Area of Celebes - - - 75,000		1,800,000.

is under the dominion of native princes. The Dutch, however, have settlements (of which Macassar is the chief), and many of the native tribes are subject to them.

Celebes yields gold, rice, cotton, and spices.

This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and colonised by the Dutch in 1560; the latter people have retained their possessions on it, with little interval, to the present time.

East of Celebes are the Moluccas* or Spice Islands, of which Gilolo, Booroo, Ceram, and Amboyna, are the chief. They belong to the Dutch, are generally hilly, with a rich soil, and yield cloves, nutmegs, and other spices, sago, and valuable woods. There are pearl fisheries on the coasts.

Below the Moluccas and belonging to the same group are the Banda Isles†, a cluster of small islets belonging to the Dutch, chiefly remarkable for the production of nutmegs.

East of these is Papua or New Guinea, a very large island little explored. Gold is said to be found there, and nutmegs, sago, and many of the tropical fruits; but the island has little or no communication with Europeans. It appears to be well wooded and fertile.

East of Papua are New Ireland, New Britain, and the Louisiade Archipelago, of which little is known. These islands were discovered by D'Entrecasteaux in 1700. Still eastward are the Solomon Islands, with which also we are imperfectly acquainted; the coast line of many of them is not hitherto laid down.

Returning westward, below the Malay peninsula, and separated from it by the Straits of Malacca, is Sumatra‡, the first of the Sunda Isles. It is traversed near the south-west coast by ranges of mountains, some of which

* Area and pop. of the Moluccas not ascertained.

† Pop. of Banda Isles, about 6000.

Sumatra, area, 125,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,000,000 ?

attain an elevation of above 13,000 feet, and many are volcanic. The north-eastern coast is plain.

The chief places are Acheen in the north, and Palembang and Bencoolen in the south.

Sumatra yields gold-dust in considerable quantities, together with copper, iron, sulphur, saltpetre, and coal.

It furnishes abundance of excellent pepper, but the other spices do not succeed so well as they do further eastward. The camphor is the best in the world. Rice is the chief food of the inhabitants. Sugar, hemp, ginger, indigo, and cotton, are produced.

The inhabitants are principally Mahometans.

Sumatra was discovered in 1509, and colonised in succession by Portuguese, Dutch, and British. The latter (in 1825) ceded their possessions to the Dutch in exchange for Malacca on the opposite coast.

Between Sumatra and Borneo are the islands of Banca and Billiton, and east of Sumatra, beyond the Straits of Sunda, is Java, belonging to the Dutch.* The island is mountainous and volcanic, the highest point reaching upwards of 12,000 feet.

The principal places are Batavia, with a population of 130,000, and Sourabaya, with about half that number.

Java yields tin, but has not great mineral riches; the soil, however, is fertile, and well cultivated.

The forests yield excellent timber, and the cultivated lands produce coffee, sugar, indigo, and rice. Spices have been recently introduced, and appear to do well.

Java was discovered by the Portuguese, colonised by the Dutch in 1619, and is still in their hands, being the chief of their possessions in the East.

East of Java are Bally, Lombok, Sumbawa, Flores, Timor, and other islands, the whole of which are moun-

* Java, area, 52,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 9,500,000.

tainous and volcanic, many points rising to near 12,000 feet. The volcano of Tomboro, in Sumbawa, has been especially remarkable for the violence of its eruptions. All these islands, from Sumatra to Timor, seem to be a continuation of the Malay peninsula, intersected by straits.

All these islands lie within the tropics, and most of them near the equator; the climate, therefore, is hot. As far as Papua inclusive they lie within the monsoons, and the Philippines are within the region of the hurricanes. In these islands, with Borneo and Sumatra, a great amount of rain falls. This takes place in Borneo at all seasons. In Gilolo, Ceram, Papua, and the adjacent islands, the east monsoon is rainy; in the more westerly islands it is dry.

South-east of these is the immense island, or rather continent, of Australia. Its outline is remarkably compact; the great Gulf of Carpentaria in the north, and Spencer Gulf in the south, being the two chief inlets, and seeming to indicate a region of depression extending across the continent.

Australia is divided into New South Wales, the eastern portion of the country; Victoria, south of it; South Australia, on either side of Spencer Gulf; and Western Australia, or Swan River. The settlement formed some years ago at Port Essington, in Northern Australia, has been abandoned.

The interior of the island is little known. The eastern coast contains a range of mountains within about 100 miles of the shore, increasing in altitude as we go southward. The Australian Alps, in the south-east, reach a height of between six and seven thousand feet. The mountains about Sydney are not more than 2000 or 3000 feet high. On the western side of the island there are also mountain ranges, but seldom reaching 3000 feet; the north-west coast is, however, little known.

The rivers of Australia are generally inconsiderable. The vicinity of the mountains to the coast, on the east and

west, renders the course of such rivers as fall into the sea in those parts necessarily short. The greatest rivers hitherto discovered rise on the western side of the eastern mountain chain. The most important is the Murray, with its tributaries, the Darling, Lachlan, Murrumbidgee, and others. The Murray is a broad and deep stream in the middle and lower portions of its course, and has recently been proved to be well adapted for steam-navigation. But its entrance from the sea is rendered difficult by a shallow lake or marsh, called Lake Alexandrina, through which it passes immediately above its mouth.

In general, however, the rivers of Australia are not capable of being navigated; and many even of those which possess some depth and volume of water near their sources, become merely insignificant streams in their further course. This result, so contrary to the course of nature elsewhere, arises from the level plains, through which these rivers flow, rendering their course sluggish, and the evaporation of a dry, warm climate taking up the water before it reaches the sea. In dry seasons the beds of the rivers are frequently a mere succession of pools, separated by dry beds of clay or gravel, and become a good deal impeded by vegetation; this tends to produce floods over the flat lands when rain ensues, and thus exposes a still larger area to evaporation. The greatest lake in Australia hitherto discovered is Lake Torrens, of a horse-shoe form, about 20 miles in width. Its length, measured along the curve, must be above 600 miles; but it is in reality a mere salt-marsh, and is for the most part dry.

The chief places are —

IN NEW SOUTH WALES:

Sydney, the first-planted settlement in Australia. It has 55,000 inhabitants. Sydney stands on the southern shore of a fine inlet called Port Jackson. In its neighbourhood is Botany Bay, which was the spot originally selected for the reception of convicts. Sydney was founded in 1788. The practice of

sending convicts to the Australian colonies has recently been discontinued.

Bathurst, in the interior. Gold was first discovered in its neighbourhood in 1851.

IN VICTORIA :

Melbourne, on the river Yarra-Yarra, near the shores of Port Phillip, a magnificent inlet.

Geelong, to the south-west, on an arm of Port Phillip.

IN SOUTH AUSTRALIA :

Adelaide, near the eastern shore of St. Vincent's Gulf. About 90 miles to the northward is the famous Burra-Burra mine, which furnishes the richest copper in the world.

IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA :

Perth, on the banks of Swan River.

The discovery of extensive deposits of gold, on both sides of the mountains throughout New South Wales and Victoria, has added immensely to the population of these districts. South Australia has extensive lead and copper mines. Both New South Wales and Western Australia possess important coal beds, and the coasts of the latter province are much marked with iron. All the colonised districts produce wheat, cattle, and sheep. Gold, wool, hides, and tallow, are the chief exports.

The principal Australian islands worthy of notice are Van Diemen's Land or Tasmania, and Kangaroo Island ; the former a large island below the south-east angle of Australia, increasing rapidly in importance. It has been hitherto a penal settlement, but the abolition of transportation will probably give a new impulse to its occupation.

The principal places in Van Diemen's Land are

Hobart Town, the capital, on the river Derwent, near the south-east coast ;

Launceston, on the river Tamar, upon the north side of the island.

East of the centre of Australia is Norfolk Island, a solitary spot selected for the transportation of convicts who had misconducted themselves while under sentence . This

island is accessible only on one spot. The penal settlement, however, is now abandoned.

Further south is New Zealand, comprising the islands of New Ulster and New Munster, separated by Cook's Strait, and still south the smaller island of New Leinster. The northern island is that which has been chiefly colonised; but the rising settlement of Canterbury, in New Munster, seems likely to impart fresh activity to the colonisation of that island.

A mountain chain runs along the western side of the group. Mount Egmont, an extinct volcano in the south-west of New Ulster, rises to 8,500 feet.

Grain, timber, together with a material worked as flax, and cattle, are the chief products.

The climate of Australia is dry and healthy. The south-east monsoon is always dry, the north-west uncertain. Serious droughts occur once in ten or twelve years, and are commonly followed by a season of unusual rain. Dews are heavy.

New Zealand is more temperate, and not subject to droughts; but storms are more frequent than in Australia.*

* We have, therefore, the following summary of the extent and population of Australasia:—

	<i>Area, E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop. in 1851.</i>
Philippines - - -	134,115	3,500,000
Borneo - - -	260,000	4,000,000
Celebes - - -	75,000	1,800,000
Sumatra and islets - -	170,000	2,200,000
Java and islets - -	52,000	9,560,000
Papua and remaining islands	250,000	4,000,000
Australia - - -	3,000,000	312,000
Van Diemen's Land - -	24,000	73,000
New Zealand - - -	100,000	268,000
	4,068,500	25,713,000

CHAP. VI.

AFRICA.

'M. G., Plate XXII.

SOUTH of Europe is the great peninsula of Africa, connected with Asia by the Isthmus of Suez. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the west by the Atlantic, and on the east by the Red Sea and Indian Ocean. Remarkably compact in outline, it is indented by no great gulfs or projecting angles, unless we consider the Gulf of Guinea, and Capes Bon and Guardafui, as interruptions to the uniformity of its coast.

At the entrance to the Mediterranean are the Straits of Gibraltar. At the entrance to the Red Sea those of Bab-el-Mandeb.

The interior of Africa is imperfectly known. The range of Mount Atlas, in the north-west, probably rises to above 12,000 feet. South of this, extending from the shores of the Atlantic to the Red Sea, is a vast arid plain, broken only by the valley of the Nile, and by occasional spots which are rather habitable than fertile. At some distance north of the Gulf of Guinea the Kong Mountains form a range parallel to the coast, and have been thought to stretch inland, rising to a great altitude under the name of Jebel Kumri, or the Mountains of the Moon. West of the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb is a mountainous district, some of whose summits reach 15,000 feet; and a volcano has been reported to attain 20,000 feet a little south of the equator.

South of the equator, ranges of moderate altitude run parallel to the east and west coasts, inclosing a table land, and in the extreme south reach 10,000 feet.

The chief rivers are the Nile, flowing into the Mediterranean; the Senegal, Niger, and Orange River on the west, and the Zambesi on the east coast.

The following are the principal divisions of Africa. In the north, partly outside the Straits of Gibraltar, is Morocco, east of which is Algiers. East of Algiers is Tunis, and still east Tripoli, and below Tripoli the kingdom of Fezzan. All these countries are comprehended under the general name of Barbary, from the Berbers, their aboriginal inhabitants.

East of Tripoli is Egypt; south of Egypt, Nubia; and below it Abyssinia. Returning to the west coast, the Sahara, or Great Desert, reaches from the Atlantic to Fezzan, and thence onward to Egypt. Below this on the west coast is Senegambia, and below it the coast of Guinea. The whole interior below the Great Desert, from Senegambia to Abyssinia, is comprehended under the general name of Soudan or Negroland. Below the Gulf of Guinea are Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela. Below Cape Gardafui are barbarous tribes of Gallas and Somaules, and below these are Zanguebar, Mozambique, and Sofala. The extreme south of Africa is occupied by the British colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

The climate of Africa is remarkable for its heat: that of the coasts of the Mediterranean, north of Mount Atlas, resembles the south of Europe. Rain chiefly occurs in winter; but the further eastward we proceed the less rain falls, and in Egypt rain is rare.

In the Sahara the heat is intense, and rain almost unknown. Below this, in Central Africa, the tropical rains are felt, and occur when the sun is most nearly vertical. Vegetation becomes luxuriant, and a numerous

population is enabled to subsist. The heat by day is extreme, but the freezing point is sometimes reached at night. This is partly owing to the distance from the sea, the land being much more susceptible of change of temperature than the ocean; possibly also in part to elevation. From the Senegal to the Bight of Biafra the coast is generally low and pestilential, from decaying vegetation under a hot sun and abundant moisture. This is the case throughout the coast of Africa, wherever the land is at all flat and marshy.

The districts about Nubia are the hottest in the world. The highlands of Abyssinia, owing to their elevation, enjoy a climate somewhat modified; but the lowlands are unhealthy, from great heat and moisture. The rainy season is winter, contrary to the general rule within the tropics; but the region of the monsoons extends to this point, and probably causes the exception.

The interior of Africa south of the equator is supposed to be a table land, but little is known either of its character or climate. In the south, the Cape Colony is subject to great occasional droughts, though torrents of rain fall at uncertain intervals.

Sect. 1. MOROCCO.

Area, 219,390 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 8,500,000.

On the north coast of Africa, at the entrance to the Mediterranean, is Morocco, bounded on the west by the Atlantic, on the north by the Straits of Gibraltar, on the east by Algiers, and on the south by the Sahara, or Great Desert. Cape Ceuta, the most northerly point, is opposite to the rock of Gibraltar, in Spain.

The principal mountains are those of the chain of Atlas, the highest of which probably attain nearly 13,000 feet.

Miltsin, the highest measured, is 11,400 feet high. None of the rivers are of great importance.

The chief towns are—

Morocco, the capital. Population 80,000.

Mequinez, a city of nearly equal importance with Morocco.

Fez, once the capital of an independent kingdom, now subject to the Emperor of Morocco.

Sallee, } once noted piratical ports, but now greatly fallen
Tangier, } into decay.

Ceuta, strongly fortified, and belonging to Spain.

Morocco produces silver, iron, lead, and salt.

Barley, maize, sugar, cotton, and tobacco are cultivated, as are also the date and olive.

Horses, mules, sheep and goats, oxen and camels, are abundant.

The principal manufacture is that of leather, for which Morocco is famous. Other articles are chiefly such as are required for domestic consumption, but a considerable traffic is carried on with the interior of Africa and with the East.

Morocco was overrun by the early successors of Mahomet, and has remained under the dominion of Saracen or Arabic princes from that period to the present.

The religion is Mahometan; the government despotic.

Sect. 2. ALGIERS.

Area, 200,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 2,800,000.

East of Morocco is Algiers, bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Tunis, and on the south by the Sahara.

The principal mountains form part of Mount Atlas.

The highest points of the greater chain may reach 9000 feet, those of the Lesser Atlas about 3000.

South of the Greater Atlas the streams are all lost in the Sahara, or form lakes which are dried up in the summer, leaving an incrustation of salt.

The chief towns are—

Algiers, the capital, whose population is still near 100,000, most of whom are French or other Europeans. It was somewhat more populous before the French invasion. Algiers was formerly the stronghold of piracy in the Mediterranean.

Constantina, a strong fortress, with some trade. It successfully resisted the first siege of the French, but fell in the next year.

Bona, not a large place, in an unhealthy district on the coast.

Salt, iron, copper, and lead are found.

Barley, maize, cotton, indigo, and the date and vine do well.

Cattle, sheep and goats, horses, mules, asses, and camels are the principal live stock.

Algiers was overrun by the Saracens almost at the commencement of their career of victory. When they were driven out of Spain, a great part of Algiers fell to the Spanish monarchs, in 1509. But in 1520, Barbarossa I. expelled the Spaniards, and obtained from the Turkish Sultan the title of Dey of Algiers. From that time it has been the seat of a piratical government, nominally dependent on the Sultan of Constantinople, but in fact independent, except of its own soldiery.

Algiers was bombarded in 1816 by Lord Exmouth, and the power of the deys greatly crippled. In 1830 the country was invaded by the French, who gradually obtained possession of it, and to whom it belongs at the present time.

Sect. 3. TUNIS.

Area, 72,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 2,300,000.

East of Algiers is Tunis, where the coast bends suddenly to the south. It is bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean, and on the south by Tripoli.

It is traversed by several branches of the Atlas; none of them, however, are of great importance, the principal being that which terminates in Cape Bon.

The rivers are inconsiderable, but the salt lakes of Loudiah are very extensive, covered, for a few feet in depth, with water in the winter, and a considerable incrustation of salt during the summer.

The principal town is—

Tunis, the capital, one of the largest cities of Africa, with a population of 150,000.

Copper, lead, silver, and quicksilver exist, but are neglected. Barley, wheat, maize, olives, dates, saffron, mulberries, tobacco, hennah, and opium, are the chief crops.

Oxen, horses, mules, cattle and sheep, and camels, are the chief animals reared for domestic use.

Leather, silk, woollen, and linen manufactures exist to some extent. Soap is made, and coral, wax, sponge, and other articles, furnish a considerable commerce.

In 690 Tunis became subject to the Caliphs; in 1534 it was conquered by Barbarossa. It became subject to Turkey in 1570. By the gradual decline of the Turkish empire it has become independent, and is now governed by a Bey who receives his investiture from Constantinople, but is really under no control of the Porte. The religion is Mahometan.

Sect. 4. TRIPOLI. BARCA. FEZZAN.

		<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Tripoli	- -	100,000	1,700,000.
Barca	- -	65,000	1,000,000.
Fezzan	- -	75,000	70,000.

The African coast east of Tunis is occupied by Tripoli, below which is Fezzan.

Tripoli is bounded on the North by Tunis and the Mediterranean, on the east by Egypt, on the south by the deserts of the Sahara and the government of Fezzan. The eastern part of Tripoli is Barca. Fezzan is surrounded on three sides by the desert, and is occupied by the nomade tribes of Tuaricks and Tibboos. The hills of Tripoli and Barca rarely exceed 1500 feet, and those of Fezzan are scarcely so high. There are no rivers or lakes of any magnitude.

The chief towns are—

Tripoli, the capital, with 25,000 inhabitants.

Bengazi, the ancient Berenice.

Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan.

The products are salt and nitre, from Fezzan.

Dates, olives, vines, castor oil, corn, tobacco, madder, senna, and mulberries, are the principal objects of cultivation.

The sheep and cattle are good. Poultry abundant.

These countries, like the rest of Barbary, were overrun by the Saracens soon after the rise of Mahometanism. They fell into the hands of the Spaniards, and the Turks obtained Tripoli in 1551, and Fezzan in 1714. The authority of the Bey of Tripoli over the Sheiks of Fezzan is, however, rather nominal than real, and he is himself nearly independent of the Sultan of Constantinople. The form of government is despotic; the religion Mahometan.

Sect. 5. EGYPT.

Area, 260,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,895,000.

The eastern portion of the north coast of Africa is occupied by Egypt. Its northern limit is the Mediterranean, and its eastern the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez. The western boundary is very indeterminate, lying in the desert; its southern is Nubia, which may be considered to commence at the first cataract of the Nile. Thus, though the whole area is of considerable extent, the cultivated portion, which lies in the narrow valley of the Nile, is reduced to 16,000 square miles, or less than one-sixteenth of the whole.

The mountains are the low ranges on either side the valley of the Nile. The Nile is the only river. Rising from unknown sources, but probably south of the equator, the Bahr-el-Abiad, or White Nile, flows northward, and in Nubia is joined by the Bahr-el-Azreek, or Blue River, and the Atbara or Takazze, from the east; it then flows through Nubia and Egypt, and enters the Mediterranean by two principal mouths. Its whole course is probably not less than 3600 miles, during half of which it is without a tributary. Its annual inundations bring fertility to Egypt, and if they prove deficient, the consequences to the harvest are most disastrous.

The salt and natron lakes, in the vicinity of the Delta, cover a considerable area, varying with the season.

The chief towns are—

Alexandria, the chief port, with 60,000 inhabitants. About 10 miles from hence is Aboukir, memorable for the victory of Lord Nelson over the French fleet, 1798.

Cairo, the capital. Population 240,000. Near the Pyramids. Suez, on the Red Sea. The port of embarkation on the overland route to India.

Essouan, or Syene, near the first cataracts of the Nile.

The products of Egypt are corn, cotton, rice, flax, dates. Horses, camels, and asses, are numerous and of good sorts; sheep and cattle less so. Poultry are reared in large numbers, and hatched by artificial heat. Egypt was conquered by the Saracens shortly after the death of Mahomet, and fell under the dominion of the Turks in 1171; and in 1250, under that of the Mamelukes. The Turks, however, again obtained the ascendancy, and the Mamelukes were reduced to the condition of a council to the Pacha appointed by the Sultan of Constantinople. Subsequently to the French invasion in 1798, the government was conferred on Mehemet Ali, an Albanian, who destroyed the remnant of the Mamelukes, overran all Syria, and, though compelled to relinquish his conquests, rendered the government hereditary in his family. The Pacha of Egypt, however, still pays a nominal tribute to Constantinople, and is under obligation to furnish assistance in time of war.

The religion is Mahometan. There are, however, above 150,000 Copts, who are Christians.

The government, like most of those in the East, is despotic.

Sect. 6. NUBIA. KORDOFAN.

		<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Nubia	-	360,000	500,000.
Kordofan	-	60,000	unknown.

South of Egypt is Nubia, bounded on the east by the Red Sea, on the west by the desert, and on the south by Kordofan, Sennaar, and Abyssinia.

It is subdivided into Lower Nubia, nearer Egypt, and Upper Nubia, south of the junction of the Nile and Atbara.

A range of hills of no great elevation skirts the Red Sea.

The cultivable land is confined in Lower Nubia to the valley of the Nile. On either side is a scarcely habitable desert, affording precarious subsistence to a scanty, nomade population. Upper Nubia consists of a table land elevated 4000 feet above the sea, and becoming more mountainous toward Abyssinia.

The Blue and White Nile, and the Atbara, already mentioned, are the chief rivers, but many tributaries to them in Upper Nubia fertilise the land.

Kordofan lies to the south-west of Nubia. It is less hilly, and borders on the desert towards the north.

The chief towns are—

New Dongola.

Khartoum, the modern capital of Nubia, with 30,000 inhabitants.
Sennaar, on the Bahr-el-Azreek, or Blue Nile.

El Obeid, the capital of Kordofan.

Barley, corn, tobacco, millet, and dates are grown. Cattle, horses, and camels are the chief live stock. Considerable trade is carried on with the interior of Africa, through Darfur, and with Abyssinia.

Nubia was overrun in the fifteenth century by the Mahometans, who suppressed Christianity, which was then the prevailing religion of the Nubians. It subsequently became an independent country under petty chiefs. In 1821 Ibrahim Pacha reduced both it and Kordofan to dependencies on Egypt, and such they still continue.

Sect. 7. ABYSSINIA.

Area, 300,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 4,500,000 ?

South-east of Nubia is Abyssinia. The north-east boundary is the Red Sea, and on the south are the Gallas, Somaules, and other savage tribes. The kingdoms of

Tigre, Amhara, and Shoa, form the principal subdivisions of Abyssinia.

The whole country is intersected with numerous mountain chains, the highest of which attain the snow limit, but do not greatly exceed it. Abba Jared, about the centre of Abyssinia, is estimated at 15,000 feet. Many points attain an elevation not greatly inferior.

Abyssinia is well watered. It contains the sources of the Blue Nile and Atbara, with many of their tributaries.

The Lake Dembea or Tzana, whose length is 65 miles, is the principal body of fresh water.

The chief towns are —

Gondar, the capital of Amhara.

Ankobar, the capital of Shoa.

Mineral riches seem to be confined to salt, which is found in great quantities near the Red Sea.

Wheat, barley, millet, cotton, and bananas, are grown. The date, vine, and other fruits of Northern Africa and Southern Europe are also cultivated. Horses, mules, and oxen are abundant. Elephants are not tamed. The ground is too mountainous for camels.

Abyssinia as well as Nubia became filled with Christian refugees from Egypt, when that country was overrun by the Mahometans, and it has retained the form of Christianity from that time. It has been repeatedly visited by the Portuguese, and Roman Catholic missions have been planted in the country. The government is in the hands of a number of petty independent chieftains, whose power is despotic.

Though the religion of the mass of the people is nominally Christian, it is mixed up with much of Judaism, and Jews and Mahometans are found in considerable numbers.

Sect. 8. EAST COAST — AJAN, ZANGUEBAR,
MOZAMBIQUE, SOFALA.

The east coast of Africa is occupied by Ajan, Zanguebar, Mozambique, and Sofala. The western boundary of all these countries is ill defined, and their area and population are unknown.

Ajan occupies the coast from Cape Gardafui southward, and is occupied by savage tribes of Somaules and Gallas.

Zanguebar is partly subject to the Imaum of Muscat, in Arabia, and partly independent. In the interior the mountains rise to a very lofty altitude, Kilimandjaro being 20,000 feet, and Mount Kenia, the culminating point of Africa yet known, of still greater altitude.

Mozambique is one of the principal Portuguese settlements.

The Lupata Mountains form a continuous range at the distance of near 500 miles from the coast, and parallel to it.

The river Livuma, from Lake Nyassi, bounds it on the north; and the Zambesi, one of the greatest streams in Africa, upon the south.

The principal town is Mozambique, a miserable place of 3000 inhabitants.

Sofala is a district on the east coast, south of the Zambesi, stretching southward to Delagoa Bay. It is included in the government of Mozambique.

The chief products of these districts are rice, cocoa-nuts, ivory, slaves, and gold-dust.

The possessions of Portugal were once of some importance, but fell to decay when she lost her colonies in the East; and the suppression of the slave-trade by British cruisers has tended still further to depress their condition. Its unhealthy climate will probably, sooner or later, do the rest, and leave the coast to its native possessors.

Sect. 9. SAHARA.

Returning to the north-west of Africa, the whole of the interior below Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, from the Atlantic to Egypt, is occupied by the Sahara or Desert. This vast tract, 1000 miles in breadth, is a great plain, covered for the most part with loose sand, but varying with bare, stony districts, and interspersed with oases of greater or less fertility. Wherever water is tolerably abundant, beauty and verdure accompany it. Such spots, however, are rare and limited, but their occurrence renders the desert capable of being traversed in several directions, and gives it a scattered population.

From Tripoli the fertile region of Central Africa may be approached by Fezzan; and from Morocco a more western track is frequented by caravans, but would be impassable without camels.

Salt, senna, and gentian, are the chief products of the desert. The ostrich frequents its margins, and is pursued for the sake of its feathers. The scanty population is chiefly of Arab descent and of Mahometan religion.

Sect. 10. SENEGAMBIA.

At the southern edge of the Sahara, on the west coast, is Senegambia, containing many French and British settlements. It extends from the Senegal to the Guinea Coast, and is bounded on the west by the Atlantic; on the east by the little known ramifications of the Kong Mountains, and by Soudan or Negroland.

Cape Verd, the extreme west point of Africa, lies in this district. The country is watered by the Senegal, a great river flowing through a plain, on the north, and more southward by the Gambia and other streams flowing from the Kong Mountains.

The chief French settlements are Fort St. Louis and the Island of Goree.

The principal British stations are those of Bathurst and Sierra Leone, the latter a hilly peninsula, surrounded by low land. The capital is Freetown, with 15,000 inhabitants, but proverbially unhealthy to Europeans.

The chief products of Senegambia are palm oil, ivory, wood, hides, and, from the interior, gold-dust.

Below Sierra Leone is Liberia, a free state under the protection of the United States of North America, established, like Sierra Leone, for the reception of emancipated negroes, and in the hope of opening a commerce with the interior. Its climate is less injurious, and the present condition of the settlement is highly prosperous. The principal town is named Monrovia.

Sect. 11. GUINEA.

Eastward of Liberia is Guinea, lying between the Kong Mountains on the north, the Gulf of Guinea on the south, and the mouth of the Quorra or Niger eastward.

It is divided into the Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, and Gold Coast. The slave-trade having been abolished, the name of the Slave Coast for its eastern portion has been abandoned. The tribes of Mandingoes and Ashantees, and the kingdoms of Dahomey and Benin, occupy the country. The British have, however, the settlements of Accra and Cape Coast Castle, which are retained as stations for the convenience of commerce.

The Kong Mountains are little known.

There are numerous small streams, but no great river except the Quorra, to be described hereafter.

Abomey and Benin are the principal towns, but they are of no great importance.

The products are gold-dust, palm oil, indigo, sugar, rice, tobacco, maize, and cotton. The forests furnish

valuable woods and gums. Ivory is also an article of important traffic.

The government of the various independent native tribes is despotic; and such religion as is received among them is the grossest Fetishism. Any object in nature may be esteemed a Fetish, and certain trees, stones, animals, or even their own shadow, have thus been taken for a divinity or presiding genius over individuals. The priestcraft and superstition which accompany this system are extreme.

Sect. 12. SOUDAN, OR NEGROLAND.

The interior of Africa south of the Sahara is comprised under the general name of Soudan, or Negroland.

Its southern boundary, toward the west, is formed by the Kong Mountains. In Central Africa its limits are quite undetermined. Eastward it extends to Kordofan and Abyssinia.

The Kong Mountains are not known in any point to reach the snow line. A range called Jebel Kumri, or the Mountains of the Moon, has been supposed to exist, and will perhaps be found crossing the continent from the head of the Gulf of Guinea to Mounts Kenia and Kilimandjaro.

The chief river is the Quorra, Joliba, or Niger, which was once supposed to be connected with the Nile, but has been now traced almost from its source in the Kong Mountains, east of Sierra Leone, to the sea in the Bight of Benin. It is navigable nearly throughout, but the lower part of its course is much impeded by rocks, and is only available for traffic after the rainy season. It forms an extensive delta, and has a course of 2300 miles.

Nearly in the centre of Africa is the Lake Tchad, 200 miles long by 160 broad. It is fed by numerous streams, of which the Shary is the principal, and has been thought

to communicate with the Niger by the river Tchadda; but this is now ascertained not to be the case.

Further to the east is another large lake, called Lake Fittre, of which little is known but the name.

The principal nations in the interior of Africa are: the Fellatahs; the kingdoms of Bournou, Begharmi, and Kanem, around Lake Tchad; with Dar Saley, and Darfur, further east, toward Nubia and Kordofan.

Many populous towns exist. The principal are: —

Sego, on the Quorra.

Timbuctoo, the great entrepôt of trade between Morocco and Central Africa.

Saccatoo, the populous capital of the kingdom of Houssa, with manufactures of blue cloth.

Boussa, on an island in the Niger. Here Mungo Park was killed.

Kano, with a population of 30,000 or upwards.

Kouka, on the Lake Tchad, with considerable commerce.

Cobbe, the capital of Darfur.

The products of Central Africa are little developed. Gold dust, millet, cotton, indigo, ivory, and abundance of cattle and horses, are the principal.

We know nothing of the history of Negroland, and have only within the present century discovered the nature of its physical features. The Mahometan religion prevails among the population of Arab descent. Fetishism is more general among the Negroes. The governments are almost all despotic, though in some cases the aristocracy of warriors is a check upon the power of the monarch.

Sect. 13. WESTERN COAST.

Immediately north of the equator the southern arm of the Gulf of Guinea forms the Bight of Biafra. Here the Peak of Cameroons, reaching the altitude of 13,000 feet, approaches the shore, and the coast is bold and rocky to the

Gaboon river. Of this part of Africa nothing but the coast line is known. Below this, Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela, extend to about latitude 18° south. Still further south, the barbarous tribes of Damaras and Namaquas extend to the Orange river. A range of mountains, gradually receding inland as we advance toward the south, follows the general direction of the coast. These are known as the Sierra Compliche and Sierra Fria.

The chief river is the Zaire or Congo, whose sources are imperfectly known, but whose magnitude denotes a long course from the interior. Many inferior rivers flow from the mountain ranges to the coast.

The chief places are : —

Loango, the capital of the state so called, which extends as far as the Zaire.

Kabenda, a Portuguese settlement near the mouth of the Zaire.

S. Paul de Loando,	} Portuguese settlements.
S. Philip de Benguela,	

The usual productions of tropical Africa are found, but the slave trade has been the ruin of all other traffic.

These countries were discovered by the Portuguese, who claim the sovereignty, but have little influence beyond their own stations. The native princes govern the country. Both Angola and Loango were formerly dependent on the king of Congo, but they are now separate kingdoms. Romanism was introduced by the Jesuits, but has fallen into desuetude, and Fetishism prevails.

The interior of Africa, south of the equator, appears to consist of a tableland, rising in successive terraces from the coast, and partly desert, partly fertile. The great Lake N'yassi is said to extend for several hundred miles in about latitude 10° south, but is only known to Europeans by the report of natives. Ten degrees further south,

the lake N'gami is somewhat better known, together with the river Limpopo, and the country of the Bechuanas. The forests are the haunt of the elephant, giraffe, camelopard, and buffalo. The plains are frequented by countless herds of various species of antelope, the zebra and gnu, and the ostrich. The hippopotamus and rhinoceros frequent the rivers, and the lion roams lord of the solitary waste.

Ivory and skins are the chief products.

Sect. 14. CAPE COLONY.

Area, 200,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 220,000.

The extreme south of Africa is occupied by the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, bounded on the west and south by the Atlantic, on the north by the Orange River, on the east by Kaffraria.

Its subdivisions are appended in a note.*

The Cape of Good Hope itself is at the south-west angle of the colony to which it gives name, on a peninsula between Table Bay and Simon's Bay.

The mountains rise in successive ranges from the south coast, the Zwarteberg attains an altitude of about 4000 feet, and the Nieuweldt and Sneeuberg, which form a more northerly range, reaching in some places as much as 10,000 feet, are covered with snow in winter.

A considerable part of the interval between these ranges is occupied by the Great Karroo, a clay desert, almost impassable in the dry season from its utter barrenness.

* Cape Town.
Stellenbosch.
Worcester.
Clanwilliam.
Zwellendam.

George.
Beaufort.
Uitenhage.
Albany.
Somerset.

Cradock.
Graaf Reinet.
Colesberg.
Victoria.
Albert.

The Great Fish River and others on the south coast are unimportant streams, almost dried up at certain seasons, but liable to floods at others. The Gariep or Orange River, which forms the northern boundary of the colony, is the principal stream; but it is not generally navigable. Tribes of Bosjemans or Bushmen occupy a great part of the district through which it flows.

The chief towns are: —

Cape Town, the capital. Population, 22,500.
Graham's Town, about 500 miles to the eastward, with 6000 inhab.

Iron, lead, alum, and salt, are the chief mineral products. Timber is scarce. Corn is raised, and aloes grow spontaneously. The vine is cultivated with success.

Horses and cattle are numerous. Sheep do well, and supply large quantities of wool. Ivory, ostrich feathers, wax, and cured fish, are the other chief articles of commerce.

The Cape of Good Hope was first doubled in modern times by Vasco di Gama, a Portuguese, in 1497. Settlements were formed there by the Dutch in 1650. The colony was taken by the English during the war at the commencement of the present century, and finally conceded to them in 1815.

The government, by a recent constitution, is vested in a Governor, appointed by the Crown, and a Legislative Assembly, chosen by the colonists. The religion of the Dutch is that of the Lutheran Church. The British are for the most part Protestants, of various denominations.

North-eastward of the colony are British and Independent Kaffraria, and, beyond them, the British colony of NATAL, which forms a dependency of the Cape, under a lieutenant-governor. It includes an area of 18,000

square miles. The chief town is Pieter-maritzberg, in the interior: D'Urban, on Port Natal, is the principal seat of trade.

Sect. 15. AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Among the principal islands on the coast of Africa is Madeira, which, with the small adjacent island of Porto Santo, belongs to Portugal, and is celebrated for its wine. Below these are the Canary Isles, the largest of which is Teneriffe. The celebrated peak or mountain of that name rises to about 12,000 feet. They belong to Spain.

South-west of these are the Cape Verd Islands, belonging to Portugal. Off the coast of Senegambia are the Bissajos and Isles de Los, the latter belonging to Britain.

In the Gulf of Guinea, a little north of the equator, is Fernando Po, a mountainous isle. Below it, the Portuguese islands of Prince's and St. Thomas; and Anno Bon, belonging to Spain. Far to the south-west, in the Atlantic, are Ascension Isle and St. Helena, possessions of the British. The latter island is remarkable as the scene of the captivity and death of Napoleon.

On the eastern coast, off Cape Guardafui, is Socotra; and below the equator are the Seychelles Islands, belonging to Britain. South of them are Bourbon and Mauritius, the former a French, the latter a British, dependency.

Westward of these is Madagascar, one of the most considerable islands in the world. It is separated from the opposite continent of Africa by the Mozambique Channel, and is mountainous and well-watered. The highest summits reach about 11,000 feet. It is well peopled by native tribes, but the inhabitants are averse to intermixture with strangers, and the interior is imperfectly known. The area is estimated at 234,000 square miles; the population, at 4,700,000.

Coal, iron, and salt are found. Tobacco, cotton, rice, indigo, spices, and cocoa-nuts, are cultivated.

The religion of Madagascar may be now considered Paganism, Christianity, which was extending very considerably about twenty years ago, having been suppressed, under severe penalties, and the missionaries expelled. But recent events appear to have again opened this fine country to the exercise of missionary influence.

In the Mozambique Channel are the Comoro Isles, of which Mayotta, one of the chief, belongs to France.*

* Africa, excluding its islands, has been estimated at about 11,647,428 square miles, and the population has been supposed to be somewhere about 100,000,000; but nothing is known with any certainty upon the subject.

The islands above enumerated have an area of about 253,846 E. sq. miles, and a population of about 5,179,605.

Total (of continent and islands):

Area, 11,901,274 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 105,179,605.

CHAP. VII.

AMERICA.

M. G. PL. I.

THE immense continent of America lies to the west of Europe, and is divided into two parts, North and South, which are connected by the Isthmus of Panama. It was discovered by Columbus. In his first voyage, he reached the Bahama Isles, October, 1492, and shortly after discovered Cuba and St. Domingo. It was not till his third voyage that he discovered the mainland of South America, 1498: but previous to his return, Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, had published an account of his voyage, under Alonzo de Ojeda, in 1499, along the north coast of South America; and, from this circumstance, has given his name to the New World.

The first discovery of North America was made by Giovanni Cabot, a Venetian in the service of our Henry VII., 1497.

NORTH AMERICA.

M. G. PL. XXIII., XXIV., XXV., XXVI.

North America (Pl. XXIII.) is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the east by the Atlantic, on the west by the Pacific, and on the south by the Isthmus of Panama.

Its form is somewhat triangular. Icy Cape and Cape Chudleigh may be taken as the limits of its breadth to-

ward the north. Its outline here is, however, much broken by the peninsula of Boothia and Hudson's Bay. On the west, the peninsulas of Alaska and California, together with the great Gulf of California, interrupt the regularity of its coast. On the east, the peninsulas of Florida and Yucatan stretch far out into the Gulf of Mexico.

A continuous chain of mountains runs along the west coast, northward from Cape St. Lucas, the extremity of California, under the names of Sierra Nevada, Californian Alps, and Cascade Mountains. Parallel to this a more extensive range stretches from the Isthmus of Panama to the Arctic Ocean, and is known through great part of its extent as the Rocky Mountains. Eastward the land consists of great plains, bounded by the Alleghany chain, of much less altitude than the former, at a distance of from 100 to 400 miles from the east coast.

The Mackenzie is the principal river to the north. The Saskatchewan, St. Lawrence, and Missouri or Mississippi flow to the east coast: the Yukon, Columbia, and Colorado, to the west.

The north-west part of this great continent is separated from Siberia by Behring's Straits, and belongs to Russia. The whole remaining portion, as far south as latitude 49° and five great lakes which empty themselves by the St. Lawrence into the Atlantic, belongs to Great Britain. South of this are the United States of North America, and below them Mexico. South-east of Mexico are the States of Central America.

The islands of North America are those in the Arctic Sea, many of which are only partially laid down; the great island of Greenland; Newfoundland, with its adjacent islands; the West Indies; and various islands along the coast of the Pacific: all of which will be mentioned hereafter.

The climate of North America has almost every variety,

but is remarkable for its cold. In the north, the short summer scarcely thaws more than the surface of the soil. In Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, the winters are of great severity, but the summers are sufficiently hot to ripen corn and maize, and most of the fruits of Mid-Europe. The great extent of frozen ground and of forest unite to render the spring late; and the cold current bearing the ice down Baffin's Bay tends to keep the temperature near the mouth of the St. Lawrence far lower than the latitude would lead us to expect. In the United States the winters, though somewhat mitigated, are still very severe; but the summers are genial, and in the south hot. The shores of the Pacific enjoy a milder climate and less vicissitude. The numerous swamps on the Gulf of Mexico render the locality unhealthy, but its heat is not so great as might have been anticipated, owing to the small extent of land in that portion of the continent where the heat would be most readily absorbed. The heights of the plains in Mexico, and the vicinity of very lofty mountains, moderate the heat, except upon the coast. In the interior of Mexico very little rain falls.

Sect. 1. RUSSIAN AMERICA.

Area, 371,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 61,000.

Russian America occupies the whole of the continent from longitude 141° westward, together with the coast and adjacent islands, as far south as latitude 54°.

Mount St. Elias, one of the highest North American mountains, marks the boundary between the British and Russian possessions, and may be considered as the culminating point of the most western range. Its height is 17,800 feet.

The chief river is the Yukon, flowing into the Pacific south of Behring's Straits.

The land is thinly peopled by wandering Indian tribes, and is dreary and desolate. The interior is little known.

The islands in this region are, the Aleutian Islands, off the coast of Aliaska; the Kodiak Islands; the Sitka Archipelago, in which is the principal Russian settlement, New Archangel; and Prince of Wales's Island, the southernmost point of the Russian territory.

Sect. 2. BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

Area, 2,584,700 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 2,750,027.

British North America (Pl. XXIV.) is bounded on the north by the Polar Sea, on the west by the Russian territory and the Pacific, on the east by Hudson's Bay and the Atlantic, and on the south by the United States. The following are its subdivisions.

Below the St. Lawrence are New Brunswick and the peninsula of Nova Scotia; above the St. Lawrence, Canada, formerly divided into Upper and Lower Canada, but now united into one province. The whole district above this is occupied by the Hudson's Bay Company's territory.

Capes Wolstenholme and Chudleigh in Labrador, and Capes Sable and Canso in Nova Scotia, are the chief salient points.

The chief mountains are, the prolongation of the Californian chain, the principal known points of which are Mount Fairweather, a volcano above 14,000 feet in height; and Mount St. Elias, already mentioned. Eastward of these are the Rocky Mountains, in which Mounts Brown and Hooker equal Mont Blanc in altitude.

Eastward of this range the land is but slightly elevated; but in Labrador a range of considerable though unknown elevation runs parallel to the coast.

The chief rivers are the St. Lawrence, Mackenzie, and Saskatchewan.

The St. Lawrence is supposed to carry in its channel a larger body of water than any other river in the world. It rises west of the five great lakes—Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario. Four of these lakes lie along the boundary line between the British possessions and the United States. The fifth, Michigan, is wholly within the United States. After passing through Lake Erie, the St. Lawrence is precipitated, at the falls of Niagara, a depth of 160 feet, and flows onward through Lake Ontario to the Atlantic. The important cities of Kingston, Montreal, and Quebec, are upon its banks. At Quebec it is five miles broad, subject to the tides, and navigable for ships of the line, though still 400 miles from its mouth. Its course may be considered 2000 miles.

The Mackenzie rises in the Rocky Mountains, and, flowing through the desolate territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, falls into the Arctic Ocean. The Saskatchewan, from the same range, flows through Lake Winnipeg, and has a course of 1900 miles. It falls into Hudson's Bay, under the name of Nelson River.

The Lakes of British North America are numerous and important. Of the five lakes above mentioned, Lake Superior is 360 miles long and 80 broad, being the largest body of fresh water in the globe; Lake Michigan is about 300 long by 50 broad; Lakes Huron and Erie are not greatly inferior; Lake Ontario is about 180 by 50; and Lakes Winnipeg, Athabasca, Slave Lake, and Great Bear Lake, are not much smaller. The whole country is interspersed with numerous other large bodies of fresh water.

The principal towns are:—

In Nova Scotia:—

Halifax, with a noble harbour, and 15,000 inhabitants.

In New Brunswick : —

St. John's, the chief seat of trade, with 8000 inhabitants.

In Canada : —

Toronto, formerly the capital of Upper Canada, on Lake Ontario.

Kingston, on the St. Lawrence, where it leaves Lake Ontario.

Montreal, on an island at the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence.

Quebec, the capital of the province, memorable for the death of General Wolfe, and the capture of the city from the French, in 1759.

In the Hudson's Bay territory are no towns. A few posts have been established for the sake of the trade in furs with the Indians, but the whole region is thinly peopled by roving tribes. The Esquimaux and Indians inhabiting the great peninsula of Labrador, between Hudson's Bay and the St. Lawrence, are not estimated at much above 4000 souls.

The chief islands of British North America are Queen Charlotte and Vancouver Islands in the Pacific. In the Polar Seas, Melville Island, North Devon, Cockburn, Cumberland, and the lately discovered Baring Island. The coasts of these distant regions have been laboriously though but partially laid down in the endeavour to find a passage through the north-west to India. Great skill, intrepidity, and perseverance, have been exerted by various expeditions under Captains Parry, Back, Ross, Franklin, McClure, and others. These have traced nearly the whole line of coast from Baffin's Bay to Behring's Straits, and yearly additions are made to our stock of information.

In Hudson's Bay is Southampton Island.

Near the mouth of the St. Lawrence are Newfoundland, where the great cod fishery is carried on, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, and Anticosti.

We should not omit to mention the great island of Greenland, divided into East or Old, and West or New

Greenland: the former beyond measure bleak and dreary, and scarcely inhabited by a few wandering Esquimaux; the latter containing some scanty Danish settlements. Its northern coast is unknown, and the eastern is but imperfectly traced. It is separated from the British possessions by Baffin's Bay and Davis's Strait.

Far south of Nova Scotia, in the North Atlantic Ocean, are the British islands of the Bermudas, said to be 350 in number, but only eight are of any importance.

The productions of British America are various. Mineral riches occur in many districts; both iron and copper are abundant in Canada. Wheat, oats, maize, and timber, are the chief vegetable products. Horses and cattle are reared in the colonised districts; and vast numbers of deer, musk-oxen, beavers, bears, foxes, and other animals, supply valuable furs. Innumerable swarms of geese, ducks, and other aquatic birds, furnish a large amount of down and quills, and the seas teem with fish, whales, and seals.

Canada was colonised by the French, and a large proportion of its inhabitants are of French extraction. It was ceded in 1763 to the British, who still retain it. Its original Indian possessors are fast retiring, before the approach of civilisation, to the more distant north and west.

The French Canadians are Roman Catholics, as are many of the Irish who have emigrated thither. All forms of worship are tolerated. The Indians and Esquimaux are mostly unconverted Pagans.

Sect. 3. THE UNITED STATES.

Area, 2,682,849 E. sq. miles.—Pop. in 1850, 22,088,454.

Below British America are the United States (Pl. XXIII.), now thirty-six in number, including the district of Columbia and four territories not yet consolidated into States. They are bounded by British America and the great lakes

above mentioned on the north; by the Pacific on the west; by the Atlantic on the east; and by the Gulf of Mexico and the country of that name on the south.

The chief Capes are Cape Mendocino on the Pacific, and Capes Cod, Hatteras, and Sable, on the Atlantic.

The chief mountain chains are the Californian Alps, which here form a double range. The Sierra Nevada, or more inland, reaches 15,000 feet; that along the coast is lower. At some distance eastward are the Rocky Mountains, which run parallel to the former. Some of their summits exceed 13,000 feet. The Fremont Mountains form a connecting ramification in about lat. 36°.

Parallel to the eastern coast (Pl. XXV.) are the Appalachian or Alleghany Mountains, extending from the State of Alabama to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. They form a double ridge, known in different parts under different denominations, and rise from 4000 to 6000 feet. East of them is a third range called the Blue Mountains. Some of its summits reach to near 7000 feet. The White Mountains in New Hampshire may be considered a prolongation of this range, and rise to nearly the same altitude.

The chief rivers falling into the Pacific are the Columbia, Sacramento, and Colorado.

The Columbia rises in British America, and, receiving the Saptin or Lewis in the territory of Oregon, flows into the sea after a course of above 1300 miles.

The Sacramento and St. Joaquim flow from opposite directions in California, and, uniting their waters, fall into the Pacific at S. Francisco. The Sacramento and its tributary streams are remarkable for the great deposit of gold upon their banks, the pursuit of which has led to the rapid increase of the Californian population. Below these the Colorado flows into the Gulf of California.

On the eastern coasts the Susquehanna and Potomac

flow into Chesapeake Bay; but the principal river in North America, in length and extent of its basin far exceeding the St. Lawrence, though carrying a less volume of water, is the Missouri, which rises in the recesses of the Rocky Mountains, in lat. 47° , whence it descends in perpetual cascades for many miles. Its whole course is about 4200 miles, being the longest in the world. It receives from the west the Platte river, the Arkansas, the Rio Roxo or Red River, and many other great rivers, and from the north the Mississippi, which has a course of 1100 miles before its confluence with the Missouri. The united stream then takes the name of the Mississippi, till it falls into the sea at New Orleans. The Ohio, which joins the Mississippi from the east, has a course of 1400 miles, and is itself one of the greatest rivers of North America. On the confines of Mexico, the Rio Grande del Norte, rising in the Rocky Mountains, has a course of 1800 miles before it reaches the Gulf of Mexico.

Besides the great lakes on the northern frontier, we should not omit to mention the Great Salt Lake (Pl. XXIII.), in the territory of Utah, where a body of religious enthusiasts, under the name of Mormons, have established themselves.

The United States may be conveniently divided into the following groups. The places most worthy of notice are mentioned under each.

I. New England:—

1. Maine: chief town, Portland, an important seat of trade.
2. New Hampshire: chief town, Concord.
3. Vermont.
4. Massachusetts.

Boston, with a population of 138,000. It took the lead in the resistance against Great Britain which ended in the independence of the United States.

Lowell, with important woollen and cotton manufactures.

5. Rhode Island.
Providence, with increasing manufactures.
6. Connecticut.
Hartford, possessing a college.

II. Next to these, the Central States on the Atlantic coast are —

7. New York, with Long Island. It is one of the most important States of the Union, deriving the name from the Duke of York, afterwards James II., to whom the province was given by Charles II. after its cession by the Dutch.
New York, at the mouth of the river Hudson, with a population of 515,000 and one of the finest harbours in the world.
Albany.
Buffaloe, on the Erie canal, of rising importance.
8. Pennsylvania, so called from William Penn, who colonised it in 1680, but the Dutch had settlements there previously.
Philadelphia, with a population of 410,000.
Pittsburg, the Birmingham of the United States.
9. New Jersey.
10. Delaware.
11. Maryland.
Baltimore; population, 169,000.
12. Columbia, a small independent district of 10 miles square, included between Maryland and Virginia, and containing, Washington, the capital of the United States: pop. 40,000.

III. Below these, following the Atlantic coast, are —

13. Virginia, founded by Sir Walter Raleigh, and so called in honour of Queen Elizabeth.
Richmond: pop. 27,000.
14. North Carolina, } Deriving their name from Charles II., in
15. South Carolina, } whose reign they were colonised.
Charlestown, in South Carolina, with 42,000 inhabitants, the chief port on the Atlantic for the Southern States.
16. Georgia, so called from George II.: chief town Savannah.
17. Florida. Ceded by Spain to the United States, 1821, and still scantily inhabited. It forms a peninsula between the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico.

IV. Upon the Gulf of Mexico are —

18. Alabama, watered by the river of that name.
Mobile, with 20,000 inhabitants, and considerable trade.
19. Mississippi, on the east bank of the river so called.
20. Louisiana, west of the Mississippi, and including its delta. It passed from France to the United States by purchase.
New Orleans, the principal city of the Southern States. Its population is 105,000.

V. Northward of Mississippi and Alabama are —

21. Tennessee, watered by the river of that name.
22. Kentucky, bounded on the north by the Ohio.
23. Ohio, between the Ohio and Lake Erie.
Cincinnati, on the river Ohio, with extensive trade, and 116,000 inhabitants.

VI. North-west of these are —

24. Michigan.
25. Indiana.
26. Illinois, between the Ohio and Mississippi.
27. Wisconsin.

VII. West of the Mississippi are —

28. The Minnesota territory.
29. Iowa.
30. Missouri, along the river Missouri.
St. Louis, on the river Mississippi, with 82,000 inhabitants.
31. Arkansas, along the river Arkansas.
32. Texas, formerly a member of the Mexican Confederation. It became independent, and was annexed by treaty to the United States, 1845.

Extending from the above-named States to the Rocky Mountains (Pl. XXIII.) is a belt of undulating prairies, or open, grassy plains, and beyond it a zone of more sterile country little known.

VIII. Beyond the Rocky Mountains are —

33. Oregon territory.

34. California, on the Pacific, rich in gold.

San Francisco, on the bay of that name, at the mouth of the river Sacramento, rapidly rising in importance.

35. Utah territory.

36. New Mexico territory.

The mineral wealth of the United States consists of vast treasures of gold in California. Mercury is found in California, Kentucky, and Ohio; copper, in Michigan; lead, in Illinois and Wisconsin; coal, in the Alleghany Mountains; salt, in New York; and iron, in the Central and North-eastern States.

Its vegetable products are, wheat and maize everywhere; cotton, indigo, tobacco, and rice, in the Southern and seaboard States; maple sugar in the north.

Vast herds of buffaloes wander over the prairies west of the Missouri. Cod and whale fisheries are extensively pursued, and domestic cattle of all kinds are reared.

The government of the United States is republican. All forms of religion are tolerated, but none established.

The North-eastern States were first colonised by the Dutch, and were ceded to the British, by whom the coasts of the Atlantic were settled. The war which arose upon the subject of taxation was concluded by the acknowledgment of the United States as a free and independent republic, in 1783. Since that period extensive settlements in the west, and the annexation of Florida, Texas, New Mexico, and California, have vastly increased the power and extent of a country which promises to become one of the greatest nations in the world.

Sect. 4. MEXICO.

Area, 988,942 * E. sq. miles. — Pop. 7,108,000.

Below the United States is Mexico, bounded on the

* Including Lower California, area 38,000, pop. 15,000.

east by the Gulf of Mexico and Central America, and on the west and south by the Pacific.

Lower California, separated from Mexico by the Gulf of California, and terminated by Cape St. Lucas, is considered as a territory belonging to the Mexican Confederation, but is not yet sufficiently advanced to become one of the States.

A chain of mountains of moderate elevation extends the whole length of the above-mentioned peninsula. A parallel range, being a continuation of the Rocky Mountains, runs through the centre of the country from north to south, and throws off a north-eastern branch from its most southerly point.

Popocatepetl and Orizaba rise above 17,000 feet. These and many other summits are volcanic. Between the two above-mentioned branches is the elevated tableland of Mexico, whose height is estimated at about 6000 feet.

Owing to the vicinity of the ocean on both sides, the rivers are not very important. The Rio Grande del Norte, before mentioned, on the frontier of Texas, is the most important.

The lakes are numerous and considerable. The Lake Chapala, in lat. 21° , is the most important.

It is not necessary to trouble the learner with a list of the inconsiderable States which form the Mexican Confederation, but the following may be mentioned as the principal towns:—

Mexico. The capital city now, as it was formerly of the native princes. Population 150,000.

Puebla.

Vera Cruz, on the Atlantic, the principal port of Mexico.

Tampico, also on the Atlantic coast, further to the northward.

Acapulco, on the Pacific, the chief seat of the trade with the Philippines. From this port, the famous Spanish galleons used to sail.

Guadalaxara.

Guanaxuato, the centre of the gold and silver mining districts.

Queretaro.

San Luis di Potosi, formerly very rich in silver ; but the mines are exhausted.

Zacatecas.

The Revillagigedo islands belong to Mexico.

The chief productions of Mexico are silver from its numerous rich mines, together with a considerable amount of gold, copper, lead, tin, and quicksilver.

The climate is such as to produce excellent wheat and maize, and in the low lands tobacco, cotton, indigo, and sugar ; but they are all much neglected.

The usual domestic animals are reared. Agriculture and manufacture are very rude.

Three centuries before the discovery of America, Mexico had been occupied by the Aztecs, a people of some advance in civilisation, and many curious monuments of their architecture yet remain. The country was conquered by Cortez, who seized the person of the Aztec emperor, Montezuma, by treachery. Mexico was then misgoverned by Spain for three centuries, till in 1821, after a sanguinary warfare of some years, it was declared independent, and shortly afterwards formed itself into a republic on the model of the United States ; but its government is feeble, its people are indolent, and its resources undeveloped. The religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 5. YUCATAN.

Area, 50,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 472,876.

East of Mexico, and formerly a member of the Mexican Confederation, is Yucatan (Pl. XXVI.), now an independent State.

It forms a peninsula bounded on the north and west by

the Gulf of Mexico, on the south by Mexico and Central America, and on the east by the Caribbean Sea.

Its mountains are not so considerable as to require separate mention. Its rivers are few, and from its peninsular form inconsiderable. The chief towns are—

Merida, the capital.

Campeachy, whence dyeing woods are brought.

Yucatan has no mines. Its productions are salt, dyeing woods, rice, indigo, sugar, and other tropical plants; and cattle.

Its history is involved in that of Mexico. Its government is republican; its religion, Roman Catholic.

Sect. 6. CENTRAL AMERICA.

Area, 196,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 2,000,000.

The southernmost State above the Isthmus of Panama is Central America. It is bounded on the north-east by the Caribbean Sea and the Mosquito coast, and on the south-west by the Pacific.

A series of interrupted mountain chains run through the country from shore to shore, in a north-west direction. The highest points rise to 12,000 or 13,000 feet, but the intermediate valleys give every facility for communication between the two seas.

The chief rivers flow into the Caribbean Sea. The Motagua is the principal; but the St. Juan, which flows from Lake Nicaragua, is of great importance to the communication which will probably be shortly established between the Atlantic and the Pacific. This lake is 140 miles long and 50 broad, and is only elevated 130 feet above the sea, and no great impediments occur between it and the Pacific.

The chief place is —

Guatemala, the capital, with 40,000 inhabitants.

The productions of Central America consist of great riches in gold, silver, copper, zinc, and lead. Its forests yield logwood, mahogany, and other valuable timber. It also produces sugar, indigo, cotton, tobacco, cocoa, and medicinal drugs. Its sheep are valuable.

This country was conquered by the Spaniards soon after the discovery of America, and continued a dependency of the Crown of Spain until the declaration of the independence of Mexico in 1821, when it became part of the Mexican Confederation, and was shortly afterwards formed into a separate republic on a similar model.

The religion is Roman Catholic, but other forms are tolerated.

Sect. 7. BELIZE.

Area, 16,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 10,000.

MOSQUITO COAST.

Area, 48,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 10,000.

We must not omit the district of Belize or British Honduras, between Yucatan and Central America, where mahogany and logwood are procured. It passed into the British possession from that of Spain in 1670 by treaty, and has continued subject to Great Britain since that period. The only town is Belize, at the mouth of a river of the same name.

The Mosquito coast is an independent territory of native Indians, north-east of Nicaragua, and extends to the mouth of the river St. Juan.

Sect. 8. WEST INDIES.

Area, 91,340 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 3,735,047.

We shall conclude the account of North America by

some mention of the West Indian Islands, which lie in a connecting chain between the coast of Florida and South America.

Off the east coast of Florida lie the Bahamas or Lucayos, comprising several hundred isles of various magnitudes, one of which, S. Salvador, was the first land seen by Columbus. All these belong to the British. Below these is the important island of Cuba, belonging to Spain. Its chief city is Havannah. Eastward is Hayti or St. Domingo, formerly called Hispaniola, which is independent. Below Cuba is Jamaica, belonging to Great Britain: its capital is Kingston. East of Hayti are Porto Rico, belonging to Spain, and the Virgin Isles, subject to the British, with the exception of St. John's and St. Thomas's, which are possessions of the Danes. South-east of these are the Caribbean Islands, giving name to the Caribbean Sea. The principal are—St. Christopher, Antigua, Dominica, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, Grenada, and Tobago, all belonging to the British; Guadaloupe and Martinique, possessions of France. St. Martin, St. Eustatius, and the island of Curaçoa off the coast of Venezuela, are subject to the Dutch. Below the Caribbean Islands are Trinidad, ceded by Spain to the English, and Margarita, belonging to the government of Venezuela.

The West Indian climate is exceedingly hot, and during part of the year subject to violent rains. Yellow fever is the scourge of the islands. A daily interchange of land and sea breezes, however, moderates the intensity of the heat; and temperance, together with reasonable precautions, renders the climate less injurious than has been supposed.

The chief products of the West Indies are sugar, cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, and turtles.

The name of the West Indies arose from the opinion of Columbus and the early navigators that a way might be discovered to the East Indies by sailing westward. And

when those islands were reached they were supposed to be the commencement of an uninterrupted series of lands reaching from thence to Hindostan, the circumference of the world having been estimated at considerably less than the truth. This whole imaginary district was thus treated as part of the *Indias* (*India within and India without the Ganges*), and received the adjunct of *West* from the direction in which it was approached from Europe.*

* The extent and population of North America and its islands may be calculated as follows:—

	<i>E. Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Russian America -	- 371,000	61,000
British possessions in Canada, &c. -	- 484,700	2,250,027
British Northern territory -	- 2,100,000	500,000
United States -	- 2,682,849	22,088,454
Mexico -	- 950,942	7,093,000
Lower California -	- 38,000	15,000
Central America -	- 196,000	2,000,000
Yucatan -	- 50,000	472,876
Belize -	- 16,400	10,000
Mosquito Country -	- 48,000	10,000
Greenland and islands of British America }	900,000	10,000
Cuba -	- 43,380	1,007,624
Hayti -	- 29,500	1,000,000
Jamaica -	- 4,250	377,433
Porto Rico -	- 3,750	500,000
Remaining West Indian islands -	- 10,460	850,000
	7,929,231	38,245,414

CHAP. VIII.

SOUTH AMERICA.

M. G. PL. XXVII.

BELOW the Isthmus of Panama is South America. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea and North Atlantic. The South Atlantic bounds it on the east; the Pacific on the west; and the Straits of Magellan separate it from Tierra del Fuego on the south.

Its form is triangular, its greatest length being about 4500 English miles, and its greatest breadth about 3000.

Point Gallinas is the northernmost point. Cape St. Roque on the east, and Cape Blanco on the west, define its greatest breadth, in about 5° or 6° south latitude. Cape Horn, the extreme point southward, is on an island below Tierra del Fuego.

South America is traversed from north to south, at the distance of about 100 miles from the Pacific, by the vast mountain chain of the Andes, frequently divided into two, and in the north into three, ridges. Branches are thrown off about midway, inclosing a very elevated table-land, of the height of about 12,000 feet, and surrounded by the highest summits of the Andes, which reach to double that altitude. A very much lower chain, whose summits rarely exceed 8000 feet, runs parallel to the east coast, and less important ridges follow a similar direction further inland :

but the characteristic feature of South America consists in its immense plains. These, together with the mountain ranges, will be described in detail as we proceed.

The Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Parana, with their tributaries, are the principal rivers.

In the north are the republics of Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador. Below these is Peru : south-east of Peru, Bolivia. East of Venezuela is Guiana, divided between the British, Dutch, French, and Brazilians. Below these is the immense empire of Brazil, with the smaller states of Paraguay and Uruguay to the south-west. West of these is the Argentine Republic, or La Plata ; and still west, on the other side of the Andes, Chili. The lowest part of the continent is Patagonia.

The islands of South America are few, Chiloe, Tierra del Fuego, and the Falkland Islands, being the principal.

The characteristic of the climate of South America is its moisture. The whole of the east coast is subject to a more than usual amount of rain, especially in Brazil and Guiana. A small district between the Andes and the west coast has, it is true, very rarely any rain ; but this region is inconsiderable compared with the whole continent. Venezuela, Guiana, and the greater part of Brazil, are exposed to great heat. The plain of the Amazon is unhealthy, from its liability to floods, and its situation almost under the equator. The elevated regions of Peru enjoy a delightful climate. Those of Bolivia are more subject to cold, violent wind, and storms. La Plata has a drier atmosphere than most countries of South America east of the Andes. The coast, however, is generally damp, but exposed to violent dry winds called Pamperos, bringing storms of dust from the Pampas of the interior. The south extremity of the continent is beyond measure dreary ; the passage round Cape Horn, even in summer, is exposed to fogs and storms, and in winter is most inclement.

Sect. 1. VENEZUELA.

Area, 450,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 900,000.

Venezuela (or Little Venice) is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea; on the east by British Guiana; on the south by Brazilian Guiana; and on the west by New Granada. Cape Gallinas, the northernmost point of South America, forms the limit of Venezuela towards the west.

A prolongation of the eastern range of the Andes, some of whose points may reach 6000 feet, runs through the north of the state. On the south-east, the Sierra Pacaraima, rarely attaining 7000 feet, divides Venezuela from Brazil. Between these are the Llanos, great plains destitute of trees. In the rainy season they form a carpet of verdure, but in dry months a perfect desert.

Through this plain flows the Orinoco, a mighty stream whose sources are not ascertained, but its length is supposed to be about 1550 miles. At Esmeralda, near the Brazilian frontier, a branch as wide as the Rhine communicates with the Amazon by the Rio Negro, thus opening singular commercial facilities to future generations.

The chief lake is that of Maracaybo, a great inland sea of fresh water, communicating by a broad passage with the Gulf of Maracaybo, in the Caribbean Sea.

The chief places are :—

Caraccas, the capital, with 50,000 inhabitants. La Guayra is its port.

Maracaybo, on the gulf so called.

The island of Margarita derives its name from the pearl fisheries carried on there, and belongs to Venezuela.

The chief mineral product is sulphur.

The vegetable products are coffee, sugar, cocoa-nuts, indigo, cotton, tobacco, with many medicinal plants, and

abundance of valuable timber. Large herds of cattle feed upon the plains, and are exported in great numbers.

There are scarcely any roads, and the industry of the people is confined to domestic manufacture and agriculture.

The coast was the first part of the mainland discovered by Columbus, 1498; and thence called the Spanish main. Together with New Granada and Ecuador, it threw off the Spanish yoke in 1823, after a contest of some years. The three states then formed themselves into a republic under the name of Columbia, and in 1831 separated into the independent republics above named. The religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 2. NEW GRANADA.

Area, 380,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 1,687,000.

West of Venezuela is New Granada, including the Isthmus of Panama.

The Caribbean Sea bounds it on the north, the Pacific on the west, and Ecuador on the south.

The whole west is mountainous, being traversed by the three ranges of the Andes. The summits of the easternmost rise to 15,000 feet. From their declivity the Llanos extend eastward into Venezuela and Brazil.

The principal river is the Magdalena, a very rapid stream, much infested with alligators, which forms almost the only means of access to the interior.

The chief towns are:—

Santa Fe de Bogotá, the capital, above the valley of the Magdalena.

Cartagena, on the Caribbean Sea, the principal port.

Popayan, in the valley of the Cauca.

Panama, on the Pacific coast of the isthmus.

Most of the vegetable products of Venezuela are obtained in the lower lands of New Granada, but its mineral riches are far more abundant. Gold is found in the Cauca, a tributary of the Magdalena. Platinum, silver, copper, tin, and lead, together with emeralds and rock salt, are also obtained.

Its history has been sketched in that of Venezuela. Its religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 3. ECUADOR.

Area, 325,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 600,000.

To the south of New Granada is Ecuador, bounded by the Pacific on the west, Brazil on the east, and Peru on the south.

The Andes here form only a double chain. In the eastern range the volcanoes of Cotopaxi and Antisana rise to about 19,000 feet, and other points are little inferior. In the western, Chimborazo, 21,500 feet in height, was long supposed to be the culminating point of the Andes. Between these ranges is the lofty plain of Quito, above 9000 feet in height. On the east, the country descends rapidly to the great plain of the Amazon, reaching without interruption to the Atlantic.

The chief rivers of Ecuador are the Amazon, which forms the southern boundary, together with the Putumayo and other affluents of the Amazon.

The chief towns are :—

Quito, the capital, at the foot of the volcano Pichincha, and 9630 feet above the sea level.

Guayaquil, the chief sea-port, on the gulf of the same name.

Cuenca, in the vicinity of many remains of Peruvian antiquity.

Off the coast of Quito, and under the Equator, are the Galapagos Isles.

The products of Ecuador are gold, lead, quicksilver and sulphur, cocoa, coffee, cotton, sugar, and tobacco, on the lower lands, and corn on the lofty plains. Dense forests clothe the eastern flanks of the Andes, and furnish valuable gums, but are too remote to render their timber available.

Ecuador formed part of the empire of the Incas of Peru, and with that country was overrun by Pizarro, and became an appendage of the Spanish crown. Its subsequent history is included in that of Venezuela. The religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 4. PERU.

Area, 580,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 1,515,000.

Peru occupies the Pacific coast below Ecuador, and has Brazil and Bolivia on its eastern boundary; the latter country also bounds it on the south.

The Andes here form a double chain, of which the western is the higher, Chuquibamba, in about lat. 16° south, reaching an altitude of about 21,000 feet. Lofty tablelands are inclosed between the two ranges; eastward, the country sinks rapidly to the plain of the Amazon, and is covered with dense and almost untraversed forests.

The principal rivers are the Amazon, which rises in the lake Lauricocha, about 100 miles from the Pacific, and flows northward to the confines of Ecuador; the Apurimac or Ucayali, which rises far to the south, and falls into the Amazon after it has taken its great bend to the eastward. On the border of Bolivia is the Purus, another mighty affluent of the Amazon.

The lake Titicaca, the largest in South America, is on the confines of Peru and Bolivia; it is in an elevated plain, nearly 13,000 feet above the sea, and is subject to violent storms. It contains many islands, and its waters are fresh.

The chief towns in Peru, are:—

Lima, the capital, about 6 miles from the Pacific. Pop. near 60,000. Its port is Callao, with which it is now connected by a railway. It is subject to frequent earthquakes.

Arequipa, considerably to the south-east, at the foot of the Andes, in the parallel of Lake Titicaca.

Cuzco, on the table-land between the ranges of the Andes, at an altitude of 11,000 feet. Formerly the capital of the Incas of Peru. Walls of Cyclopean masonry yet remain monuments of their architecture.

Peru has long been celebrated for its mines. Vast quantities of gold and silver have been raised from the neighbourhood of Pasco, about 11° S. lat. Quicksilver is found in great abundance, as well as copper, tin, and salt-petre. Cotton is much grown where water can be obtained; sugar, rice, tobacco, and other tropical productions are also cultivated, and, on the plains of the Andes, wheat, maize, and the fruits of Southern Europe. Medicinal drugs, among which the Peruvian bark is the principal, are gathered in the forests.

Sheep and mules are the most important domestic animals, to which we may add the llama and vicuna, which are used to carry burdens; in the mountains, goats and cattle are also reared.

We must not omit to mention the celebrated road made by the Incas of Peru from Cuzco to Quito, a distance of 1500 miles. It is still traversed in many portions. The empire of the Incas fell beneath the ruthless invasion of Pizarro, and the country became a dependency of Spain till the revolution of 1824, when a republic was established. The religion is Roman Catholic, but toleration has been granted to other forms since the Spanish yoke has been thrown off.

Sect. 5. BOLIVIA.

Area, 374,000 E. sq. miles. — Pop. 1,200,000.

South-east of Peru is Bolivia, or Upper Peru, bounded on the north by Brazil, on the east by Brazil and Paraguay, on the south by La Plata, and having a small portion of its territory on the west watered by the Pacific. It is, in part, a very elevated table-land between the branches of the Andes, which here make a circuit and reunite after throwing off some lateral ranges which form the watershed between the basin of the Amazon and that of the Rio de la Plata.

In the eastern range, Nevado di Sorata and Illimani reach 21,000 feet, and in the western Sahama is above 22,000. The plains to the north-east are very little elevated above the sea, extremely fertile, and covered with dense forests. The coast between the Andes and the Pacific is a desert.

The chief rivers are the Purus, which separates Bolivia from Peru, and the Madeira and its tributaries, which form the boundary toward Brazil; both flow into the Amazon. The Paraguay forms the boundary toward the state of the same name, and its great affluent, the Pilcomayo, rises in Bolivia, and flows southward to join it in La Plata.

The lake Aullagas is the principal lake. It receives the waters of Lake Titicaca, already mentioned, by the river Desaguadero, and has no outlet.

The principal towns in Bolivia are:—

Chuquisaca, the capital, with 12,000 inhabitants.

Potosi, near the summit of the famous mountain of that name, once the seat of the greatest deposit of silver ore in the world, but now much decayed.

La Paz, }
Cochabamba, } The principal seats of internal commerce. Each with a population of about 30,000.

Gold is found very generally disseminated; silver is

obtained in much smaller quantities than formerly, and tin, copper, sulphur, and saltpetre are found.

Timber and medicinal drugs, sugar, indigo, cotton, rice, India-rubber, vanilla, and tobacco, are all produced on the plains east of the Andes.

Multitudes of cattle and horses wander on the more open plains; the llama and alpaca, on the table-land.

Owing to the interposition of the Andes between Bolivia and the Pacific, there is little external trade.

Bolivia formed part of the empire of Peru, and fell with it into the hands of Spain. It threw off the Spanish yoke in 1824, and has since formed an independent republic. Its religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 6. GUIANA.

Area, 142,060 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 209,148.*

Returning to the north coast, eastward of Venezuela are British, Dutch, and French Guiana, lying along the coast of the Atlantic. Brazilian Guiana lies along the Amazon, and will be mentioned in the description of Brazil.

The southern boundary of the three first-mentioned countries is formed by the Sierra Acaray, whose summits are about 4000 feet in height and form the northern limit of the basin of the Amazon.

The chief rivers are, the Essequibo, Berbice, and Demerara, in British Guiana; with the Corentyn, on the borders of British and Dutch Guiana, and the Surinam, in the last-named province.

		<i>Eng. Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
* British Guiana	-	- 76,000	122,500
Dutch	-	- 38,500	65,000
French	-	- 27,560	21,648
		142,060	209,148

There are no towns worthy of mention except the capitals:—

George Town, in British Guiana, on the Demerara.

Paramaribo, in Dutch Guiana, on the Surinam.

Cayenne, in French Guiana, celebrated for its pepper.

The coast alone is inhabited by Europeans, and is nearly on the sea level, and even in some places below it. The swampy estuaries are unhealthy, but the interior is said to be far otherwise.

The forests produce much timber, medicinal herbs, and dye-woods. Sugar, coffee, and cotton, are the chief objects of cultivation, and in French Guiana pepper and other spices.

Guiana was colonised first by the Dutch. The English and the French had, however, also settlements at an early period. The whole district was taken by the British between 1800 and 1810 at various intervals, and was subdivided as at present at the peace in 1815. All forms of religion are tolerated in each of the districts.

Sect. 7. BRAZIL.

Area, 2,492,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 5,180,000.*

Brazil, including Brazilian Guiana, occupies a large district of South America, south-eastward of the countries already described. Its boundaries on the north are Venezuela, British, Dutch, and French Guiana, and the North Atlantic; on the east it is bounded by the South Atlantic; on the west, by Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, and La Plata; on the south, where it is narrowest, it is bounded by Uruguay.

* Including Brazilian Guiana

Fully half of this great area is occupied by the plain of the Amazon; south of this are several mountain chains, running for the most part north and south: the highest of these is that about 300 miles from the east coast, and its summits reach 6000 or 7000 feet. Westward of these the elevations are lower, and there is an uninterrupted plain between these mountains and the Andes, from the Rio de la Plata to the Orinoco.

The chief cape is that of St. Roque, forming the eastern angle of South America.

The rivers of Brazil are the Amazon or Marañon, formerly called also the Orellana or Solimões, among the largest rivers in the world, and its tributaries;—together with the river San Francisco, the Rio Grande or Parana, and many others.

The Amazon rises in the lake Lauricocha in Peru, as already mentioned, and, flowing eastward through the Selvas or vast wooded plains of Brazil, forms an extensive delta at its mouth, which is situated under the Equator. The tide rushes up the river in a bore or wave 12 or 15 feet perpendicular: it is fatal to small vessels, and is felt as high as Obydos, 400 miles from the river's mouth. The river itself is navigable into the republic of Ecuador.

The principal affluents from the north are the Putumayo or Ica, already mentioned, the Caqueta or Japura, and the Rio Negro, which communicates with the Orinoco. But the largest of its tributaries come from the south. The Ucayali, from Peru; the Purus and Madeira, from the confines of Bolivia; the Topajos and Xingu, which reach it lower down,—all these are great rivers. And at the eastern branch of its delta, the Tocantins, a river equal to the Danube, adds its stream.

The river San Francisco rises in the province of Minas Geraes, and flows into the Atlantic in lat. 10° south, after a course of 1800 miles.

The Parana, taking the stream of the Rio Grande for its principal branch, rises near the Atlantic coast, and sweeping westward forms the boundary of Brazil toward Paraguay, whence, after receiving the Paraguay, it enters the estuary of the Rio de la Plata.

The chief places in Brazil are:—

Rio Janeiro, the capital, with a population of 180,000, and a noble harbour.

Bahia or San Salvador, an important city, with a population little inferior, and a very capacious harbour.

Pernambuco, which includes the two towns of Olinda and Recife, has a population of 60,000, and is the third city in Brazil.

Para, on the estuary called the Rio Para, formed by the junction of the Tocantins with the eastern arm of the Amazon.

The island of Marajos or Johannes, at the mouth of the Amazon, is the only important island belonging to Brazil.

The inhabited districts are chiefly confined to the coast, or the table-lands of moderate elevation. The swampy forests are unhealthy. Brazil produces a considerable amount of gold and silver. Its iron mines also are rich, but its most celebrated mineral wealth consists in diamonds, chiefly from the province of Minas Geraes.

Sugar, coffee, cotton, rice, tobacco, and other tropical plants, are cultivated. Ipecacuanha, the root of a species of violet, is among its native products. India-rubber and tapioca are prepared in great quantities; the former a milky sap, the latter the root of the manioc. Dyeing woods and valuable timber are produced in great variety in the forests.

Countless herds of cattle and horses run wild over the southern plains. Beasts of prey are numerous, and serpents are to be dreaded, especially in the marshes.

Brazil was discovered by the Portuguese early in the sixteenth century, and with slight interruption has con-

tinued a dependency of the Crown of Portugal till 1822, when Don Pedro, heir to the Portuguese throne, cast off his allegiance to that country, and was declared Emperor of Brazil, which thus became an independent state.

The religion is Roman Catholic, but all forms are tolerated.

Sect. 8. PARAGUAY.

Area, 146,550 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 600,000.

Paraguay lies to the south-west of Brazil, between the rivers Parana and Paraguay. The former separates it from Brazil on the east, and from La Plata on the south. The Paraguay divides it from Bolivia and La Plata on the west.

A mountain chain runs through the country from north to south. The rivers which bound it are united at its southern angle, and have been already mentioned. The chief city is:—

Assumpcion, the capital, on the Paraguay.

The chief products are maté or Paraguay tea, cotton, rice, tobacco, and maize; but there is no external traffic.

This country was formerly a Spanish dependency, but declared itself independent in 1813, as a republic. Dr. Francia procured himself to be elected dictator next year. The government is now a despotism.

The religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 9. URUGUAY.

Area, 224,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 175,000.

Uruguay, or the Banda Oriental, lies to the south of Brazil, between the States of La Plata on the west, the

estuary of that name on the south, and the Atlantic on the east.

The interior is little known. The river Uruguay forms its west boundary.

The chief town is Monte Video, a port of considerable commerce.

Its products are chiefly those furnished by cattle, of which enormous herds are reared.

It was formerly a province of the government of Buenos Ayres, under the Spanish dominion. After some struggles, it formed itself into an independent republic in 1825.

The religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 10. LA PLATA.

Area, 726,000 E. sq. miles.—Pop. 1,000,000?

South of Bolivia is La Plata, or the Argentine Republic. It is bounded on the east by Paraguay and Uruguay, and between them runs up into the lower part of Brazil. Further south the eastern boundary is formed by the Atlantic. The Andes separate it from Chili on the west; the Rio Negro, from Patagonia on the south.

The chain of the Andes is here for the most part single; but in the north some branches are thrown off, and are connected with the high table-land of Bolivia. Many of these summits attain 12,000 or 13,000 feet: the main ridge will be mentioned with Chili. The chief feature of La Plata is its great plains. The north-east is occupied by a great desert, the most northern portion being the most sterile. The central west is taken up by the Salinas, a barren waste covered with saline efflorescence. And from Buenos Ayres to Patagonia and beyond, are the Pampas, covered with clover and forests of gigantic thistles, or in other parts with grass.

The chief rivers are:—the Rio de la Plata, like our Humber, rather an estuary than a river, which receives the Uruguay, Parana, Salado, and other streams. Its breadth opposite Buenos Ayres is about thirty miles. The lakes of La Plata are numerous, and many of them salt: the greatest of them, however, are only overflowings of the Salado, Pilcomayo, and other rivers, and subside as the dry season advances.

The only town of importance is:—

Buenos Ayres, the capital. Pop. about 100,000. It has no harbour, and not even a pier for boats; but carries on a great trade.

The wealth of La Plata does not consist, as might be supposed from its name, in the abundance of its silver. Gold, however, and silver, are found in the north-west, and salt is abundant. Wheat is cultivated to a small extent. Rice, indigo, cotton, and tobacco, are cultivated on the Paraguay; but all agriculture is greatly neglected. The chief productions arise from immense herds of cattle; whose skins, horns, and tallow, form important articles of commerce. Horses introduced by the Spaniards have become wild, and are very numerous.

La Plata was colonised by the Spaniards about fifty years after the discovery of America. It became an independent republic in 1816, and has passed through many struggles since that period. A military despotism was established in 1835. The religion is Roman Catholic.

Sect. 11. CHILI.

Area, 129,700* E. sq. miles. — Pop. 602,000.

West of La Plata is Chili, having the Andes on the east, the Pacific on the west, Bolivia on the north, and

* This includes Araucania, 28,000, pop. estimated at 80,000; and the island of Chiloe, 11,000, pop. 44,000.

Patagonia on the south. It is intersected by the independent district of Araucania, whose native tribes have hitherto successfully resisted the Chilians, who claim a nominal sovereignty over their country.

The range of the Andes covers a great portion of Chili. Aconcagua, a volcano, rises to nearly 24,000 feet, being the highest ascertained summit of the American continent. The volcanoes of Coquimbo, Peteroa, Antuco, and others, are also among the highest mountains in the chain.

The rivers of Chili are unimportant.

The chief places are : —

St. Jago (or Santiago), the capital. Pop. 65,000.

Valparaiso, the principal port, with 20,000 inhabitants.

Concepcion, on the coast, a place of some trade.

Valdivia, a remarkably fine harbour, but as yet a mere village.

The island of Chiloe, together with many smaller islands in its neighbourhood, belongs to Chili, as does also the island of Juan Fernandez, memorable for the residence of Alexander Selkirk, whose adventures gave rise to De Foe's tale of Robinson Crusoe.

The mineral riches of Chili consist of gold and silver, especially in the valley of Uspallata. Copper, lead, sulphur, saltpetre, and coal, are also found. Wheat, potatoes, hemp, and the fruits of Europe, including the olive, are cultivated. The fisheries would be valuable if pursued with energy.

Chili was subdued by the lieutenants of Pizarro, and continued a Spanish dependency till 1817, when it was declared independent. It has made considerable advance since that period; but the absence of roads and all internal communication must long retard its progress.

The religion is Roman Catholic, and no other forms of worship are allowed.

Sect. 12. PATAGONIA.

Area, 441,300 * E. sq. miles.—Pop. 150,000.

The remainder of South America is Patagonia, and is bounded on the north by Chili and La Plata; on the east by the Atlantic; on the west by the Pacific; on the south the Straits of Magellan separate it from Tierra del Fuego. The land rises in regular terraces from the Atlantic to the Andes, whose summits here are nearer to the Pacific coast and less lofty, rarely exceeding 6000 or 7000 feet.

The Rio Negro, its northern boundary, is the chief river. There are no towns, the country being peopled by wandering tribes. The west coast is skirted by numerous islands and peninsulas.

Patagonia was discovered by Magelhaens in 1520, and has remained in possession of the petty chiefs of its barbarous, roving tribes from that period. The Patagonians are unconverted Pagans, with little idea even of the existence of a Supreme Being.

Below the Straits of Magellan is Tierra del Fuego, so called from the fires lighted by the natives along the coasts when discovered by the early navigators. It consists of an assembly of islands, indented by deep fiords, clothed with wood, and overhung by almost perpetual mists.

Cape Horn, the extreme south point, is on a small island. The sea in this neighbourhood is peculiarly boisterous, and liable to sudden violent squalls.

The Falkland Islands lie to the south-east. They were colonised by the French, taken by the Spaniards, and ceded by them to Great Britain. They are only of value as forming a station for the whale fishery, and as a point

* This includes Tierra del Fuego and the Falkland Isles

for the supply of water and provisions to vessels on their route round Cape Horn, between New Zealand or the Australian colonies and the coasts of Europe.

East of the Falklands is South Georgia, and southward Sandwich Land, South Orkney, South Shetland, and Louis Philippe Land, all to the last degree dreary and desolate.*

* The extent and population of South America and its islands may be summed up as follows:—

	<i>Eng. Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Venezuela - - -	450,000	900,000
New Granada - - -	380,000	1,687,000
Ecuador - - -	325,000	600,000
Peru - - -	580,000	1,515,000
Bolivia - - -	374,000	1,200,000
Guiana, British - - -	76,000	122,500
——, Dutch - - -	38,500	65,000
——, French - - -	27,560	21,648
Brazil, including Brazilian Guiana }	2,492,000	5,180,000
Paraguay - - -	146,550	600,000
Uruguay - - -	224,000	175,000
La Plata - - -	726,000	1,000,000
Chili and islands, including Araucania }	129,700	602,000
Patagonia		
Tierra del Fuego, and the Falkland Isles }	441,300	600,000
	6,410,610	14,268,148

CHAP. IX.

POLYNESIA.

M. G. Plate I.

THE islands of the Pacific are comprehended by the best geographers under the name of Polynesia. They may be divided into a number of distinct groups, and have considerable variety of character. Almost all of them, however, are more or less encircled by coral reefs, the great majority of them being situated between the tropics, where the waters are warm enough for the different varieties of coral insects to grow. This formation ceases at the surface of the water; wherever, therefore, we find the coral above the water, we may know that the land upon which it is based has been elevated since its formation. The most important species of coral thrive best in the surf of the ocean: the reefs, therefore, increase on the outer margin; and where we see, as is often the case, a circular ring of land but slightly elevated above the sea, with a large central lagoon, we may suppose that a gradual subsidence of the land has taken place, the coral having been formed first, either upon the summit of a submerged mountain, or as a fringe round a rocky island. As this subsides, the coral continues to increase on the outside, but not so rapidly where the surf is kept off; the island, therefore, becomes a central rock, with an annular coral reef at some distance from it, and shallow water, with the more delicate species of coral, between the reef and the shore. On further subsidence, the central rock may be entirely submerged; and the exterior reef, increasing, still retains the

level of the ocean, and becomes a ring with a central lagoon. Sea-weed and drift-wood soon accumulate; seeds are carried by birds and ocean currents; vegetation springs up, favoured by the climate, and the island becomes habitable by man. Most of the central lagoons or circling reefs have an opening through which shipping can approach the island, and thus find secure shelter within.

As the most important corals thrive best in the surf, we shall find those islands which are exposed to a prevalent wind, or ocean current, have the largest coral formation on the side upon which the surf beats most constantly and with greatest violence.

There are distinct areas of apparent subsidence and elevation in the Pacific Ocean, which will be noticed as we proceed.

South-east of the Philippine Islands (Plate I.) are the Pellew Isles, and east of them the Caroline Isles; both of these are districts of depression. Above them, the Ladrone Islands are being elevated, as are also the Loo Choo and Bonin Isles, still further north, and New Ireland and Solomon's Isles, south of the depressed region.

In the Western hemisphere, the Sandwich Islands are an important group, now being elevated, the largest of which is Owhyhee or Hawaii, where Captain Cook was killed in 1779. It contains the lofty volcano of Mouna Koa. Marshall's Islands, containing the Ralick and Radaek groups, form a region of depression, which is continued in a south-eastern direction through the Gilbert Isles, the Society Isles, of which Otaheite or Tahiti is the chief, and the Low Archipelago. On either side of these is a zone of elevation: that on the north-east comprising the Marquesas or Mendana Isles; that on the south-west consisting of Banks's Islands, New Hebrides, Navigators' Isles, Friendly Isles, Cook's Islands, and the Austral Isles. The Fidjee Isles, and New Caledonia, situated between the

New Hebrides and Friendly Islands, appear as an exception to the general line of elevation.

The language throughout this large portion of the globe, though differing considerably in detail, is so far kindred that the islands of one group readily learn the language of another, and the varieties are all thought to be traceable to the same parentage with the Malay; thus indicating the source from which the islands were peopled. The races, however, seem to be two: the Papuan, akin to the Negro and Hottentot, and confined to the western groups; and the Malay, spread over all the islands from east to west. The monsoons, which prevail in these seas, will account for the progress of population contrary to the course of the trade winds; and the chain of islands is so continuous that few would require a very distant voyage to people them. Our knowledge of many of the groups is very scanty. The earliest discoveries were those of Magelhaens, the first European who crossed the Pacific, 1521, or about thirty years after the discovery of America.

The remaining portions of the globe are either unexplored, or omitted as of less consequence in a summary like the present.*

* The area of Polynesia is calculated at 1,130,000 square miles, and the population at 1,500,000 inhabitants.

CHAP. X.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

ALTHOUGH as much of statistics has been incorporated into the text as seemed consistent with the nature of an elementary work, the author has thought that a few tables would be acceptable by way of reference, which he has accordingly subjoined.

EXTENT AND POPULATION OF THE GLOBE.

	<i>British Sq. M.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
Europe, with its islands - -	3,797,256	259,063,219
Asia, with its islands - -	15,174,534	610,207,000
Africa, with its islands - -	11,901,274	105,179,605
North America, with its islands, including the West Indies -	7,929,231	38,245,414
South America, with its islands -	6,410,610	14,268,148
Australasia - -	4,068,500	25,713,000
Polynesia - -	1,130,000	1,500,000
	50,411,405	1,054,176,386

This table must be considered only as an approximation. The whole superficies of the globe may be estimated at

	197,518,364 British sq. miles.
Deduct	50,411,405 "
Remaining	147,106,959 for seas and unknown.

In other words, the known and inhabited parts of the globe amount to little more than a fourth of its actual surface.

As the contemplation of unusually great numbers rather

perplexes the mind than informs it, a calculation of the relative size of the several parts of the globe, and its principal divisions, may not be unacceptable, reduced to a scale of a more comprehensive kind. If we take Great Britain, which contains 88,064 square miles, as 1, the portions of the globe and the principal states of Europe, when compared with it, will be as follows:—

Europe with its islands will be rather more than 43, that is, than 43 times as large as Great Britain; Asia and its islands more than 172; Africa more than 135; North America, including the West Indies among its islands, 90; South America, 73; and the Australian continent, 34.

Of the principal states in Europe, Russia in Europe will be nearly 24; the Austrian Empire about 3; France more than $2\frac{1}{4}$; Turkey in Europe less than $2\frac{1}{4}$; Spain rather less than $2\frac{1}{4}$; Sweden rather less than 2; Norway rather more than $1\frac{1}{2}$; and Prussia rather less than $1\frac{1}{4}$.

The remaining states will all be less than Great Britain. Denmark, including Iceland, will be nearly two-thirds of Great Britain; Naples with Sicily nearly half; Portugal more than two-fifths; Ireland and Scotland, each more than one-third; Bavaria about one-third; the Papal states one-fifth; Switzerland and Hanover each one-sixth; Holland and Belgium each nearly one-sixth; Wales about one-twelfth; Saxony nearly one-twelfth the size of Great Britain. A few of the minor states of Italy and Germany are omitted, as being inconsiderable.

The student may amuse himself with a variety of calculations and comparisons from the data given in treating of the other divisions of the world in their respective chapters. The number of square miles which any country contains, divided by 88,064, which is the number of square miles in Great Britain, will give for its quotient the size of that country compared with Great Britain; and the number of inhabitants divided by the number of square

miles in any country, will give the number of inhabitants to each square mile. And again, 640, the number of acres in a square mile, divided by the number of inhabitants in a square mile, will give the number of acres which each individual might occupy for his support, supposing the lands equally divided among them. Thus it will be found that in England there are hardly 2 acres, in France near $3\frac{2}{3}$ acres, to each individual.

Before closing this chapter, it may be worth while to notice the comparative magnitudes of a few antient and modern states and empires which have a peculiar interest.

In antient history,

The Peloponnese and Palestine were each about the size of the counties of York and Westmoreland.

Attica and the kingdom of Rome at the expulsion of the Tarquins, were each about the size of Warwickshire.

Greece in its utmost extent was rather less than England alone.

The Roman empire at its greatest extent was nearly 21 times as large as Great Britain.

The British empire in Asia, with its dependencies, is about $12\frac{1}{3}$; in North America and the West Indies, above $29\frac{1}{3}$; in Africa about $2\frac{1}{4}$; in Europe, including Ireland and the islands off the coast of France, about $1\frac{1}{3}$; on the whole about $45\frac{1}{4}$ times as large as Great Britain.

The Russian empire in Europe has been stated at 24, the Russian empire in Asia is about $52\frac{1}{4}$, in all about $76\frac{1}{2}$ times the size of Great Britain.

A TABLE

SHOWING THE POPULATION OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE WORLD
WHICH CONTAIN ABOVE 50,000 INHABITANTS.

EUROPE.		Cork - - -	90,022
		Limerick - - -	56,535
ENGLAND.		FRANCE.	
*London - - -	2,360,000	Paris - - -	1,053,897
Liverpool - - -	375,955	Marseilles - - -	160,000
Manchester, with Sal-		Lyons - - -	159,783
ford - - -	367,252	Bordeaux - - -	100,000
Birmingham - - -	232,841	Rouen - - -	91,046
Leeds - - -	172,270	Nantes - - -	88,250
Bristol - - -	137,328	Toulouse - - -	71,895
Sheffield - - -	135,310	Lille - - -	67,000
Bradford - - -	103,778	Strasbourg - - -	58,186
Plymouth - - -	90,401	BELGIUM.	
Newcastle - - -	87,784	Ghent - - -	102,977
Hull - - -	84,690	Brussels - - -	93,574
Stoke on Trent - - -	84,027	Antwerp - - -	88,487
Brighton - - -	75,469	Liege - - -	75,961
Portsmouth - - -	72,096	HOLLAND.	
Preston - - -	69,542	Amsterdam - - -	211,349
Norwich - - -	68,195	Rotterdam - - -	78,098
Bishop's Wearmouth -	63,897	The Hague - - -	66,000
Deptford and Green-		SPAIN.	
wich - - -	62,924	Madrid - - -	235,000
Bolton - - -	61,171	Barcelona - - -	120,000
Leicester - - -	60,584	Seville - - -	91,360
Nottingham - - -	57,407	Valencia - - -	65,840
Bath - - -	54,240	Malaga - - -	65,000
Stockport - - -	52,835	Granada - - -	65,000
Rochdale - - -	52,820	Cadiz - - -	58,525
SCOTLAND.		PORTUGAL.	
† Glasgow - - -	344,986	Lisbon - - -	241,500
† Edinburgh - - -	160,511	Oporto - - -	80,000
Dundee - - -	61,449	SARDINIAN STATES.	
Aberdeen - - -	53,808	Genoa - - -	115,257
IRELAND.		Turin - - -	104,078
Dublin - - -	258,361		
Belfast - - -	102,103		

* See Note, p. 32.

† These numbers include the suburbs.

TUSCANY.

Florence	-	-	97,548
Leghorn	-	-	80,195

PAPAL STATES.

Rome	-	-	180,000
Bologna	-	-	69,000

KINGDOM OF TWO SICILIES.

Naples	-	-	400,813
Palermo	-	-	182,000
Messina	-	-	82,772
Catania	-	-	52,433

MALTA.

La Valetta	-	-	60,000
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GERMANY.

Hamburg	-	-	148,754
Munich	-	-	113,384
Dresden	-	-	89,243
Frankfort-on-Maine	-	-	58,440
Leipsic	-	-	54,159

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

Vienna	-	-	410,946
Milan	-	-	171,268
Venice	-	-	110,000
Pesth and Buda	-	-	106,000
Prague	-	-	100,000
Trieste	-	-	75,551
Lemberg	-	-	75,000

PRUSSIA.

Berlin	-	-	408,502
Breslau	-	-	112,194
Cologne	-	-	95,202
Konigsberg	-	-	75,243
Elberfeld and Barmen	}	-	67,940
Dantzic		-	66,827

RUSSIA.

St. Petersburg	-	-	500,000
Moscow	-	-	380,000
Warsaw	-	-	166,997
Odessa	-	-	70,877
Riga	-	-	67,338

DENMARK.

Copenhagen	-	-	129,292
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SWEDEN.

Stockholm	-	-	84,160
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TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Constantinople	-	-	500,000
Adrianople	-	-	90,000
Bucharest	-	-	80,000
Salonica	-	-	60,000
Bosna Serai	-	-	60,000

ASIA.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Damascus	-	-	135,000
Smyrna	-	-	130,000
Bagdad	-	-	70,000
Aleppo	-	-	70,000
Bussora	-	-	60,000
Erzeroum	-	-	60,000
Brusa	-	-	60,000
Kutahya	-	-	55,000

PERSIA.

Ispahan	-	-	100,000
Teheran	-	-	70,000
Resht	-	-	50,000
Candahar	-	-	50,000

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

Bokhara	-	-	150,000
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CABUL.

Cabul	-	-	60,000
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HINDOSTAN.

Benares	-	-	630,000
Madras	-	-	400,000
Patna	-	-	300,000
Calcutta	-	-	230,000
Bombay	-	-	230,000
Delhi	-	-	200,000
Hydrabad	-	-	200,000
Lucknow	-	-	200,000
Nagpoor	-	-	157,000
Lahore	-	-	120,000
Poonah	-	-	110,000
Ahmedabad	-	-	100,000

Baroda	-	-	100,000
Trichinopoly	-	-	100,000
Umriztir	-	-	80,000
Barcilly	-	-	66,000
Mirzapoor	-	-	65,000
Agra	-	-	65,000
Dacca	-	-	65,000
Judpoor	-	-	60,000
Bangalore	-	-	60,000
Aurangabad	-	-	60,000
Jyoor	-	-	60,000

SIAM.

Bankok	-	-	60,000
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ANAM.

Saigon	-	-	180,000
Kesho	-	-	150,000

MALAYA.

Singapore	-	-	50,000
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CHINESE EMPIRE.

Pekin	-	-	1,500,000
Canton	-	-	1,236,000
Footchow	-	-	500,000
Nankin	-	-	400,000
Amoy	-	-	250,000
Yarkand	-	-	157,000

JAPAN EMPIRE.

Yeddo	-	-	700,000
Miako	-	-	477,557

AUSTRALASIA.

JAVA.

Batavia	-	-	130,000
Sourabaya	-	-	60,000

PHILIPPINES.

Manilla	-	-	120,000
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AUSTRALIA.

Sydney	-	-	55,000
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AFRICA.

EGYPT.

Cairo	-	-	240,000
Alexandria	-	-	60,000

TUNIS.

Tunis	-	-	125,000
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MOROCCO.

Fez	-	-	88,000
Mequinez	-	-	75,000
Morocco	-	-	60,000

SOUDAN.

Saccatoo	-	-	100,000
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NORTH AMERICA.

UNITED STATES.

New York	-	-	518,000
Philadelphia	-	-	409,043
Boston	-	-	135,000
Baltimore	-	-	134,379
New Orleans	-	-	105,398

MEXICO

Mexico	-	-	150,000
Guadalaxara	-	-	60,000
Potosi, St. Louis de,	-	-	55,000
Puebla	-	-	50,000

SOUTH AMERICA.

ECUADOR.

Quito	-	-	55,000
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PERU.

Lima	-	-	55,000
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CHILI.

St. Jago	-	-	65,000
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BRAZIL.

Rio de Janeiro	-	-	180,000
Bahia	-	-	150,000
Pernambuco	-	-	62,000

LA PLATA.

Buenos Ayres	-	-	100,000
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WEST INDIES.

Havannah	-	-	150,000
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TABLE
OF THE LENGTH, ETC., OF
ONE HUNDRED OF THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS IN THE WORLD.

No.	Name.	Length.	Source.	Mouth.	Quarter of the World.
		Miles.			
1	Missouri	4200	Rocky Mts.	Gulf of Mexico	N. America.
2	Amazon	3600	Andes	South Atlantic	S. America.
3	Nile	3600	Central Africa	Mediterranean	Africa.
4	Yangtsé Kiang	3300	Shamo Desert	Yellow Sea	Asia.
5	Yenesi	3000	Altai Mts.	Arctic Sea	Asia.
6	Niger or Quorra	3000	Kong Mts.	Gulf of Guinea	Africa.
7	Lena	2900	Mts. of Irkutsk	Arctic Sea	Asia.
8	Saghalien	2700	Altai Mts.	Sea of Okotsk	Asia.
9	Obi	2600	Altai Mts.	Sea of Obi	Asia.
10	Madeira	2570	Bolivian Andes	River Amazon	S. America.
11	Cambodia	2480	Thibet	China Sea	Asia.
12	Mackenzie	2440	Rocky Mts.	Arctic Sea	N. America.
13	Mississippi	2400	Lake Itasca	River Missouri	N. America.
14	Hoang Ho	2300	Mts. of Thibet	Yellow Sea	Asia.
15	Volga	2300	Valdai Hills	Caspian	Asia.
16	Irish	2200	Chinese Tartary	River Obi	Asia.
17	Parana	2200	Mts. of Minas Geraes	South Atlantic	S. America.
18	St. Lawrence	2000	Above Lake Superior	Gulf of St. Lawrence	N. America.
19	Brabmapootra	2000	Thibet	Bay of Bengal	Asia.
20	Saskatchewan	1900	Rocky Mts.	Hudson's Bay	N. America.
21	Indus	1800	Thibet	Indian Ocean	Asia.
22	Rio del Norte	1800	Rocky Mts.	Gulf of Mexico	N. America.
23	Euphrates	1700	Mt. Ararat	Persian Gulf	Asia.
24	Danube	1700	Black Forest	Black Sea	Europe.
25	Ucayali	1700	Andes of Peru	River Amazon	S. America.
26	St. Francisco	1600	Minas Geraes	South Atlantic	S. America.
27	Xingu	1600	Mts. of Matto Grosso	River Amazon	S. America.
28	Orinoco	1550	Sierra Parima	Caribbean Sea	S. America.
29	Ganges	1500	Himalaya Mts.	Bay of Bengal	Asia.
30	Arkansas	1500	Rocky Mts.	R. Missouri	N. America.
31	Amoo or Oxus	1450	Hindoo Koosh	Sea of Aral	N. America.
32	Tocantius	1450	Brazil	South Atlantic Ocean	S. America.
33	Negro	1400	New Granada	River Amazon	S. America.
34	Ohio	1280	S. of Lake Erie	River Missouri	N. America.
35	Columbia	1200	Rocky Mts.	Pacific Ocean	N. America.
36	Coqueta	1200	Andes of Popayan	River Amazon	S. America.
37	Nij Tungustra	1200	Siberia	Yenesi	Asia.
38	Paraguay	1200	Sierra Parexis	Parana	S. America.
39	Irawaddy	1200	Mts. of Thibet	Indian Ocean	Asia.
40	Dneiper	1200	Russia	Black Sea	Europe.
41	Roxo	1150	Sta. del Sacramento	River Missouri	N. America.
42	Araguay	1150	Mts. of Goyos	River Tocantius	S. America.
43	Tapajos	1150	Sierra Parexis	River Amazon	S. America.
44	Pilcomayo	1150	Andes of Charcas	Paraguay	S. America.
45	Tigris	1140	Mt. Taurus	Euphrates	Asia.
46	Senegal	1140	Kong Mts.	N. Atlantic Ocean	Africa.
47	Don	1100	Russia	Sea of Azoph	Europe.
48	Orange	1060	Kafraria	South Atlantic Ocean	Africa.
49	Magdalena	1060	New Granada	Caribbean Sea	S. America.
50	Salween	1060	Thibet	Indian Ocean	Asia.
51	Gambia	1060	Kong Mts.	Atlantic Ocean	Africa.
52	Araguay	1060	Brazil	Estuary of R. Plata	S. America.
53	Saplin or Lewis	1000	Rocky Mts.	River Columbia	N. America.

No.	Name.	Length.	Source.	Mouth.	Quarter of the World.
		Miles.			
54	Kama	1000	Russia	River Volga	Europe.
55	Godaveri	1000	Ghaut Mts.	Bay of Bengal	Asia.
56	Sutlej	1000	Thibet	River Indus	Asia.
57	Menam	970	Thibet	Gulf of Siam	Asia.
58	Colorado	960	Chilian Andes	South Atlantic	S. America.
59	Sihoon	950	Mts. of Kashgar	Sea of Aral	Asia.
60	Oural	950	Oural Mts.	Caspian Sea	Europe.
61	Jumna	950	Himalaya Mts.	Ganges	Asia.
62	Nerbudda	900	Hindustan	Gulf of Cambay	Asia.
63	Putumayo	900	Andes of Posta	River Amazon	S. America.
64	Yavari	900	Peru	River Amazon	S. America.
65	Petchora	900	Oural Mts.	Arctic Ocean	Europe.
66	Oula	900	Chinese Tartary	River Amoor	Asia.
67	Kistneh	900	Ghaut Mts.	Bay of Bengal	Asia.
68	Holmiad	860	Kohl Baba Mts.	L. Zarrah	Asia.
69	Canadian	850	Spanish Peak	River Arkansas	N. America.
70	Jutay	850	Peru	River Amazon	S. America.
71	Dniester	820	Carpathian Mts.	Black Sea	Europe.
72	Dwina	800	Russia	White Sea	Europe.
73	Indigirka	800	Stanovoi Mts.	Arctic Ocean	Asia.
74	Aldan	800	Stanovoi Mts.	River Lena	Asia.
75	Olenck	800	Siberia	Arctic Ocean	Asia.
76	Ischim	800	Independent Tartary	River Irtish	Asia.
77	Cauca	800	Andes of Popayan	River Magdelene	S. America.
78	Rio Grande	800	Chica Mts.	River Paraguay	S. America.
79	Parus	800	Peru	River Amazon	S. America.
80	Theiss	770	Carpathian Mts.	Danube	Europe.
81	Rhine	760	Mt. St. Gothard	German Ocean	Europe.
82	Tennessee	750	Alleghany Mts.	Ohio	N. America.
83	La Platte	730	Rocky Mts.	River Missouri	N. America.
84	Parnahyba	730	Sier. Duro, Brazil	Atlantic Ocean	S. America.
85	Kansas	710	Rocky Mts.	River Missouri	N. America.
86	Colorado	710	Rocky Mts.	Gulf of California	N. America.
87	Elbe	700	Riesengebirge	North Sea	Europe.
88	Colorado	700	Mt. Guadalupe	Gulf of Mexico	N. America.
89	Tobol	700	Steppe of Ischim	River Irtish	Asia.
90	Alabama	670	Alleghany Mts.	Gulf of Mexico	N. America.
91	Vistula	650	Jablunka Mts.	Baltic Sea	Europe.
92	Save	650	Illyria	River Danube	Europe.
93	Loire	600	Mts. of Cevennes	Bay of Biscay	Europe.
94	Oder	550	Mts. of Moravia	Baltic Sea	Europe.
95	Tagus	520	Mts. of Albaracin	N. Atlantic Ocean	Europe.
96	Rhone	450	Glacier of Furca	Mediterranean	Europe.
97	Po	315	Mts. Viso	Adriatic	Europe.
98	Severn	240	Pinnilmon	Bristol Channel	Europe.
99	Thames	215	Gloucestershire	German Ocean	Europe.
100	Shannon	190	L. Allen	Atlantic	Europe.

TABLE
OF
THE HEIGHTS, ETC.
OF
ONE HUNDRED OF THE CHIEF MOUNTAINS IN
THE WORLD.

No.	Name.	English Feet.	Locality.
1	Dhawalagiri - -	28,174	Himalaya, Nepaul.
2	Jawahir - -	25,750	Himalaya.
3	Chamalari - -	23,980	Himalaya, Bhotan.
4	Aconcagua - -	23,907	Andes, Chili.
5	Koondus - -	23,543	Himalaya, Nepaul.
6	Budrinath - -	23,444	Himalaya, Nepaul.
7	Chimborazo - -	21,415	Andes of Ecuador.
8	Zorata - -	21,286	Andes of Bolivia.
9	Illimani - -	21,145	Andes of Bolivia.
10	Petcha - -	21,000	Honan, China.
11	Kenia - -	20,000	Zanguebar.
12	Kilmandjaro - -	20,000	Zanguebar.
13	Antisana - -	19,137	Andes of Ecuador.
14	Cotopaxi - -	18,858	Andes of Ecuador.
15	Elborouz - -	18,493	Caucasus.
16	Hindoo Koosh - -	18,000	Affghanistan.
17	Moonakoah - -	18,000	Hawaii, in Pacific.
18	Mount St. Elias - -	17,860	Rocky Mountains, N. Amer.
19	Popocatepl - -	17,716	Mexico.
20	Orizaba - -	17,374	Mexico.
21	Ararat - -	17,266	Armenia.
22	Cerro de Potosi - -	16,000	Andes of Bolivia.
23	Pichincha - -	15,940	Andes of Ecuador.
24	Mont Blanc - -	15,750	Alps, Savoy.
25	Monte Rosa - -	15,150	Alps, Switzerland.
26	Sierra Nevada di Sta. Marta	15,000	Colombia.
27	Geesh Mountains - -	15,000	Abyssinia.
28	Tongaragua - -	14,974	Andes of Bolivia.
29	Cervin or Matterhorn - -	14,837	Alps, Switzerland.
30	Mount Fairweather - -	14,732	Confines of Russian America.
31	Mquinvari - -	14,500	Caucasus.
32	Loueyra - -	14,451	Alps of France.
33	Loupilla - -	14,144	Alps of France.
34	Finster Aarhorn - -	14,100	Bernese Alps.
35	Mount St. Helens - -	14,000	Columbia River, N. America.
36	Monte Viso - -	13,853	Alps, Piedmont.
37	Ophir - -	13,842	Sumatra.
38	Jungfrau - -	13,700	Bernese Alps.
39	Monch - -	13,507	Bernese Alps.

No.	Name.	English Feet.	Locality.
40	Eiger - -	13,483	Bernese Alps.
41	Bighorn - -	13,430	Rocky Mountains, N. Amer.
42	Schreckhorn - -	13,377	Bernese Alps.
43	Vischerhorn - -	13,300	Bernese Alps.
44	Iseran - -	13,286	Alps, Piedmont.
45	Arjish dagh - -	13,100	Anatolia.
46	Cameroons - -	13,000	Biafra, Africa.
47	Amid Amid - -	13,000	Abyssinia.
48	Ortler Spitz - -	12,850	Tyrolese Alps.
49	Soconda - -	12,600	Honan, China.
50	Peak of Teneriffe - -	12,300	Canary Isles.
51	Mulhacen - -	11,650	Sierra Nevada, Spain.
52	Simplon - -	11,540	Alps, Switzerland.
53	Mount Egmont - -	11,430	New Zealand.
54	La Maladetta - -	11,424	Pyrenees.
55	Miltsin - -	11,400	Morocco.
56	Pic de Veleta - -	11,385	Sierra Nevada, Spain.
57	Pic Posets - -	11,277	Pyrenees.
58	Koriatskaia - -	11,215	Kamtchatka.
59	Mont Perdu - -	11,168	Pyrenees.
60	Peña de Peñaranda - -	11,031	Leon, Spain.
61	Great St. Bernard - -	11,003	Alps, Switzerland.
62	Italiskoi - -	11,000	Altai, Asia.
63	Etna - -	10,880	Sicily.
64	Buet - -	10,100	Alps, Savoy.
65	Nieuweldt - -	10,000	Cape of Good Hope.
66	Parnesan - -	10,000	Banca, Sunda Isles.
67	Lebanon - -	9,800	Syria.
68	Pindus - -	9,750	Turkey in Europe.
69	Monte Corno - -	9,520	Abruzzo.
70	Sinai - -	9,300	Arabia.
71	Sierra Cobre - -	9,000	Cuba.
72	Peak of Lomnitz - -	8,700	Carpathian Mountains.
73	Monte Velino - -	8,397	Apennines, Naples.
74	Adam's Peak - -	8,280	Ceylon.
75	Schneehatten - -	8,120	Norway.
76	Parnassus - -	8,068	Greece.
77	Krivan - -	8,034	Carpathian Mountains.
78	Taygetus - -	7,900	Greece.
79	Ida - -	7,690	Candia.
80	Blue Mountains - -	7,486	Jamaica.
81	Mount Washington - -	6,650	New Hampshire, N. America.
82	Paudinskoi - -	6,550	Oural.
83	Olympus - -	6,520	Anatolia.
84	Alleghany - -	6,476	United States.
85	Righi - -	6,079	Switzerland.
86	Tanagai - -	5,400	Ural Mountains.
87	Hecla - -	5,210	Iceland.
88	Dovrefeld - -	4,875	Norway.
89	Puy de Dome - -	4,840	France.
90	Ben M'Dui - -	4,390	Aberdeenshire.
91	Ben Nevis - -	4,368	Inverness.
92	Vesuvius - -	3,932	Naples.
93	Table Mount - -	3,580	Cape of Good Hope.

No.	Name.	English Feet.	Locality.
94	Snarholm -	3,571	Carnarvonshire.
95	Maraghreddy Rocks -	3,400	Kerry, Ireland.
96	Skiddaw -	3,022	Cumberland.
97	Cradle Mount -	2,545	Brecknock.
98	Cape Horn -	1,960	S. America.
99	Wrekin -	1,320	Shropshire.
100	Volgai Mountains -	1,200	Russia.

In the foregoing table it has rather been the endeavour to give a selection of the most remarkable points in many localities, than a mere catalogue of the hundred highest summits: a thing in the present state of information impracticable, and of no great value if attained.

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